DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 283 393 FL 016 791

AUTHOR Dodds, Tony, Ed.; And Others
TITLE Refugee Education: The Case for International Action.
INSTITUTION International Extension Coll., Cambridge (England).; World Univ. Services, London (England).
PUB DATE 86
NOTE 51p.; Report of an International Workshop on Refugee Education (Dartington, Devin, England, March 29-April 1, 1985).
PUB TYPE Information Analyses (070) -- Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021) -- Viewpoints (120)

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS Case Studies; *Curriculum Development; Developing Nations; *Educational Needs; Educational Objectives; Educational Policy; Elementary Secondary Education; Futures (of Society); *International Cooperation; International Programs; Postsecondary Education; *Refugees; *Social Services; Teacher Education; *Technical Assistance; Vocational Education

ABSTRACT

A report on refugee education is based on discussions and papers presented at an international workshop convened in England in March-April 1985 and attended by representatives of refugees, governments of countries of major refugee influx, and donor agencies. The first chapter examines the priority for refugee education, including the international quality of the responsibility for refugees, refugees' view, and the realities of providing education for refugee groups. The second chapter draws up a list of educational needs and discusses how they can be met, looking separately at primary education and primary teacher training, secondary education, higher education, vocational education, nonformal education, and trainer training. Chapter three proposes a typology of refugee situations for policymaking and looks at issues in planning curriculum for groups in different circumstances. The final chapter examines persistent obstacles to effective refugee education programs and potential strategies for improving international assistance. Abstracts of 16 case studies of refugee education for various ethnic groups in varying situations are appended. (MSE)

**********
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
**********

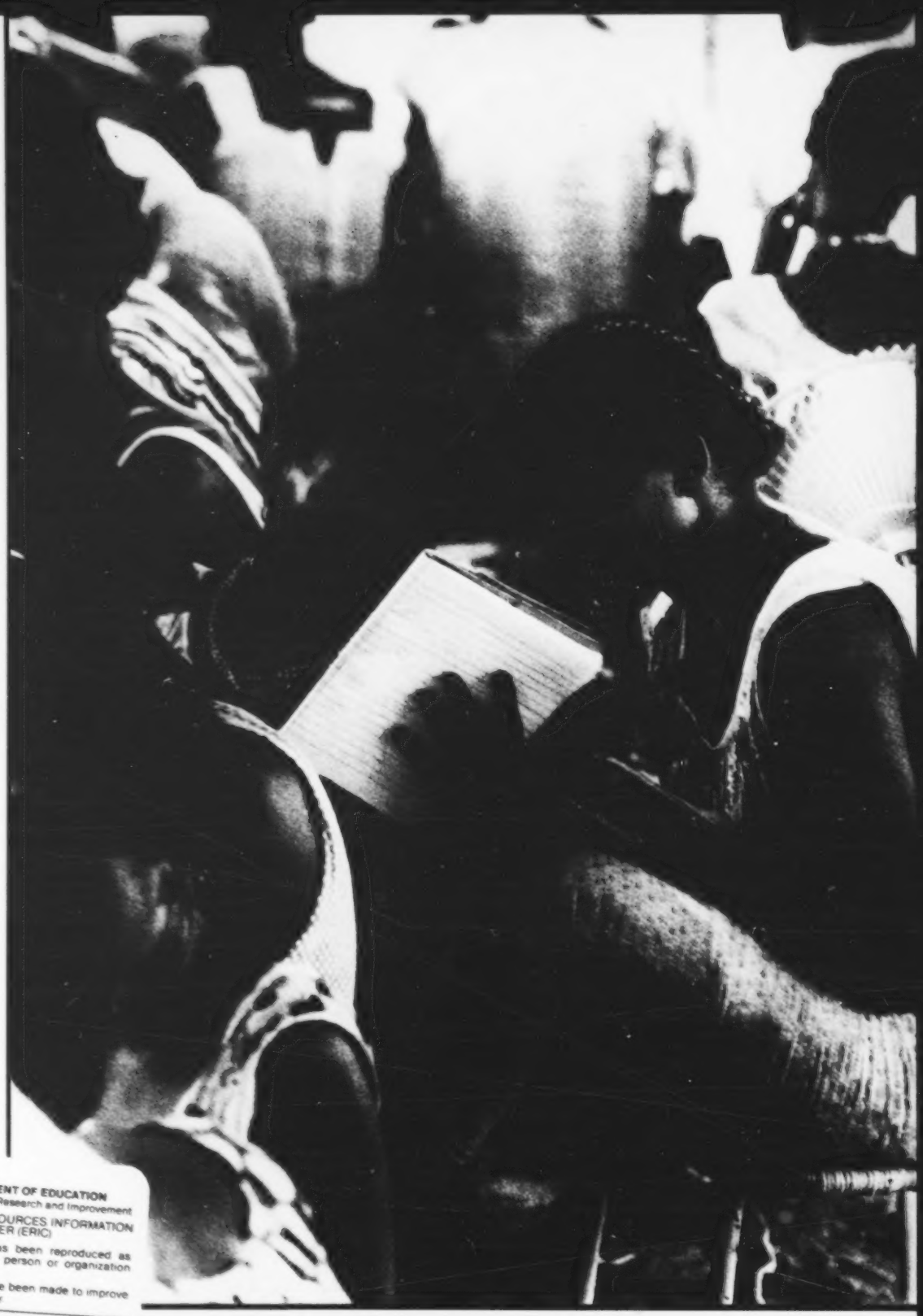
INTERNATIONAL EXTENSION COLLEGE

UK

WORLD UNIVERSITY SERVICE

ED283393

FL016791



U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

✓ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

J. Bradley

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

# REFUGEE EDUCATION

## The Case for International Action

2

developed in close co-operation with any refugees who are trained teachers in the settlements.

In most cases there are not enough trained teachers available, if any at all, either among the refugees or from host societies to staff such schools. It is therefore necessary and possible to set up immediate in-service teacher training and support services. Trainee teachers can be recruited from among the better educated refugees. After initial short crash courses on how to teach, they can be put in charge of primary classes, and simultaneously given training through self-study printed materials and regular face-to-face seminars. Close supervision can be provided by a few trained and experienced teachers. The UNRWA/Unesco project in the Middle East and the Somali Institute of Inservice Teacher Training (IITT) illustrate how this can be done. At IITT:

> The organization of the supervisory system is the key to the effective implementation of the programme at field level and the communication to and from IITT's head office.
>
> Supervision in the form of continuous guidance and support to the practising teacher trainees was from the beginning considered an indispensable part of the programme of in-service training. However, this interpretation of the functions of an educational supervisor is new to educational practice in Somalia. Hence the personnel appointed by IITT to fill the posts of supervisors needed special training before they could be expected to perform their new duties effectively.
>
> Most members of IITT's supervisory staff are former headmasters of primary schools. Following their recruitment, they were given intensive training of three weeks' duration followed up by short refresher courses of two weeks' duration.[2]

Other projects include a much smaller-scale example in Mexico City run by the Mexican Committee for Aid to Refugees (COMAR), and the UNHCR/Government of Pakistan Inservice Training Courses for Afghan Refugee Teachers.

Such in-service training and support programmes, as well as the schools themselves, necessitate the rapid establishment of an infrastructure through which all schools in all settlements can be serviced. It is necessary to identify key persons and/or authorities through whom this infrastructure can be established, whether they be government, refugee, non-government organisation or international agency personnel.

In order that such emergency programmes, however crude, become immediately useful and form the basis for more developed programmes, people with professional expertise and experience in primary education are needed as planners and programme designers. These may be found among the refugees, or come from the host government or international specialist agencies.

As a refugee community moves from the emergency stage of its crisis into a more settled state, more carefully organised action and more formalised structures are required for primary education and its teachers. The following are examples of steps to be taken at this second stage:

- more comprehensive curriculum development and its recognition by host governement and international authorities;
- a wider range of more permanently and professionally produced teaching and support materials;
- more formal teacher-training structures (though still largely in-service); the establishment of qualifications equivalent to those of the host country and meeting international standards; the provision of upgrading courses for teachers trained in the emergency phase;
- a more structured educational administration, linked as appropriate to the national administration;
- more permanent school buildings;
- the replacement of international specialists (if any) with host country and/or refugee officials.

The kind of provision described above is usually only possible among refugee communities who live in special settlements largely separated from members of the host society. It is much more difficult to provide adequate primary education to refugees who are scattered and spontaneously settled among the host communities. Such spontaneous settlement is a characteristic of refugees living in towns, where national primary schools are often most crowded. We have come across very few examples of primary education projects among spontaneously settled refugees, but where these occur, there seem to be three overriding problems. First is the difficulty of gathering details of numbers and educational requirements of these scattered refugees whose very pattern

# Refugee education

## The case for international action

compiled and edited by
a working group consisting of:

| | |
|---|---|
| Tony Dodds | IEC |
| Nigel Hartley | WUS (UK) |
| Sarah Hayward | WUS (UK) |
| Solomon Inquai | IEC |
| Janet Jenkins | IEC |
| Kees Maxey | AET |
| Knud Mortensen | Adviser to IITT |


International Extension College
World University Service (UK)
1986

International Extension College
Office D
Dale's Brewery
Gwydir Street
Cambridge
CB1 2LJ

World University Service (UK)
20 Compton Terrace
London
N1 2UN

'Just because we are refugees,
does not mean our brains do not need knowledge,
as our stomachs need food.'

*Eritrean woman*

© IEC and WUS (UK) 1986

ISBN: 0 903632 37 3

Typesetting by Cambridge Photosetting Services
Printed by NEC Print, 18 Brooklands Avenue, Cambridge

# *Contents*


| | *page* |
|---|---|
| List of abbreviations | 4 |
| Editors' note | 4 |
| Introduction | 5 |
| Chapter 1: The priority for refugee education | 7 |
| 1. Refugee education – an international responsibility | 7 |
| 2. The refugees' view | 8 |
| 3. The reality of educational provision for refugees | 10 |
| Conclusion | 11 |
| Chapter 2: Educational needs and how to meet them | 13 |
| 1. Primary education and primary teacher training | 13 |
| 2. Secondary education | 15 |
| 3. Higher education | 17 |
| 4. Vocational education | 17 |
| 5. Non-formal education | 19 |
| 6. Training of trainers | 20 |
| Conclusion | 20 |
| Chapter 3: Themes and problems | 22 |
| 1. A typology of refugee situations | 22 |
| 2. Planning the curriculum | 28 |
| Conclusion | 34 |
| Chapter 4: Persistent problems and strategies for the future | 36 |
| 1. Obstacles to effective refugee education programmes | 36 |
| 2. Strategies for improving international assistance | 36 |
| 3. The way forward | 39 |
| Case studies of refugee education | 40 |
| List of participants | 47 |
| Programme | 48 |

# *Abbreviations*

| | |
|---|---|
| ANC | African National Congress (of South Africa) |
| ANDES | Salvadorean Teachers' Union |
| COMAR | Mexican Committee for Aid to Refugees |
| COR | Commissioner for Refugees (Sudan) |
| ERA | Eritrean Relief Association |
| ERC | Educational Resource Centre (Botswana) |
| ICARA | International Conference on Assistance to Refugees in Africa |
| IEC | International Extension College |
| IITT | Institute of In-service Teacher Training (Somalia) |
| ILO | International Labour Office |
| NWFP | North West Frontier Province (Pakistan) |
| OAU | Organisation of African Unity |
| REST | Relief Society of Tigray |
| SWAPO | South West Africa People's Organisation (of Namibia) |
| Unesco | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation |
| UNHCR | United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees |
| UNIN | United Nations Institute for Namibia |
| UNRISD | United Nations Research Institute for Social Development |
| UNRWA | United Nations Relief and Works Agency |
| WUS | World University Service |

**Editors' note**
Numbered notes to each chapter will be found at the end of the chapter.
References to case studies are to the full versions available from IEC/WUS.
Abstracts appear on page 40.

# *Introduction*

There is a shortage of information about potential and practice in education for refugees, both adults and children. This report aims to start to fill this gap and to suggest ways forward for the future.

The report is based on discussions that took place at an international workshop on refugee education, together with papers commissioned for the workshop. The workshop was jointly convened by the International Extension College (IEC) and the United Kingdom Committee of the World University Service (WUS). It took place from 29 March to 1 April 1985 in Britain, at Dartington, Devon.

The idea of holding an international workshop on refugee education stemmed from a concern shared by the IEC and WUS (UK) that the issues of refugee education were receiving insufficient attention within the context of discussion on refugee assistance. Education was too often placed low on the agenda or ignored altogether, despite the importance of education to all members of the refugee community and despite the fact that allocations to refugee education form a significant proportion of total expenditure on refugee assistance. What was needed was a discussion focussing specifically on aspects of refugee education and involving those with practical experience, brought together to share information, ideas and experience with a view to improving refugee educational provision.

The workshop had three main purposes which were outlined in the original workshop proposal:

- to highlight the urgency of education in refugee relief services;
- to examine critically existing experience in providing education to refugees;
- to work out a strategy for providing more immediately and effectively for the educational needs of refugees.

This suggested agenda stemmed from the experience of the two sponsoring agencies, both of which are non-governmental organisations which have, in recent years, become increasingly involved in operating refugee education programmes in the third world. For WUS (UK), this has been an extension of work (undertaken in partnership with WUS internationally) carried out over a number of decades in the provision of educational opportunities for refugees arriving in the United Kingdom; for IEC, involvement with refugee education has developed from an awareness that distance education, the major focus of IEC's work, has a particular potential relevance for a dispersed refugee population.

After initial discussions it was agreed that the workshop should attempt to cover experience throughout the world and that every level of education, including non-formal and adult education, should be considered.

Representatives from three major groups involved in refugee education should be invited: refugees, governments in countries of major refugee influx, and donor agencies (to include inter-governmental organisations and governmental agencies, as well as non-governmental organisations). Although clearly ambitious, such a comprehensive agenda and participation was felt by the sponsors of the workshop to be essential, given the need to share experience and establish links. No previous attempt had been made to hold such a workshop.

In order to create an environment for the fullest exchange of information and experience, participants were invited to contribute from their experience and were not obliged to provide statements on behalf of their organisations unless they chose to do so. Background papers were commissioned to be circulated in advance, so that the workshop itself could concentrate on discussions around issues raised in the papers. For practical reasons, as both sponsoring agencies are based in Britain, a location in the UK but away from the distractions of London was selected. The Dartington Hall complex, with its long tradition of educational innovation, provided an excellent venue.

The programme of the workshop was planned to provide an overview on the first evening of the issues to be covered during the next two-and-a-half days. Papers by representatives of sponsoring agencies concentrated on raising questions based on some of the practical problems and gaps in provision in refugee education programmes and on the need for a better flow of information and experience leading to better co-ordination of efforts. The second day of the workshop was devoted to three panel discussions led by some of those who had contributed background case studies focussing on:

- primary education and teacher training;
- secondary and higher education and vocational training;
- adult and non-formal education.

Study groups during the second day were planned to look more closely into some of the critical areas in refugee education and examine some of the problems in depth: the concept of refugee education for liberation and/or return; education for development, self-sufficiency and employment; education and integration; and priorities in resource allocation. On the final day it was proposed that conclusions should be drawn from this experience about what initiatives were needed in order to mobilise international resources more effectively and more urgently to provide adequate educational services to refugees. Study groups on this day dealt with the themes: consultation with refugees and liberation movements; mobilisation and utilisation of resources; inadequacy of institutional arrangements; and information exchange.

The idea of the workshop received much encouragement from all those approached in the nine months of preparation and most of those invited were able to send representatives. We regret that it was not possible at the last minute for a variety of reasons for representatives of the following groups and organisations to attend: Unesco, the Salvadorean Teachers Union (ANDES) from Central America and the World Council of Churches. Nor was it possible to secure participation of a representative of the Western Saharan refugee population in Algeria. For financial reasons and also in order to maintain a certain degree of informality and flow of discussion, it was decided that English should be the working language of the workshop. We are most grateful to those who participated in the workshop and to the following organisations which provided financial support: the European Economic Commission, the Ford Foundation, the Swedish International Development Agency, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the Dartington Africa Trust.

CHAPTER 1

# *The Priority for Refugee Education*

The education of over 10 million people – the current estimate of the world's refugee population – represents an enormous challenge. A brief survey of current provision suggests many unmet needs in terms of the scale, scope and content of refugee education and reveals many policy contradictions. Despite the diversity of refugee situations, there are some common problems and issues concerning education in exile which deserve more serious consideration. Although a substantial proportion of budgets for refugee assistance is already allocated to education, refugee education is seldom debated and little studied. Issues of refugee education are neglected. The purpose of this report, and the workshop on which it is based, is to remedy this neglect.

## 1. Refugee education – an international responsibility

The right of refugees to education is acknowledged within international conventions. Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states the basic right of all people to education:

> Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory.[1]

Article 22 of the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees reinforces this when on 'Public Education' it states:

1. The Contracting States shall accord to refugees the same treatment as is accorded to nationals with respect to elementary eduction.
2. The Contracting States shall accord to refugees treatment as favourable as possible, and, in any event, not less favourable than that accorded to aliens generally in the same circumstances, with respect to education other than elementary education and, in particular, as regards access to studies, the recognition of foreign school certificates, diplomas and degrees, the remission of fees and charges and the award of scholarships.[2]

The responsibility for providing education for refugees rests with host governments. But as the majority of the world's refugees are resident in the world's poorest countries, which face serious problems in providing basic education for their own citizens, refugee education becomes a responsibility which must be shared by the international community through intergovernmental organisations such as UNHCR, the United Nations Relief and Works Association (UNRWA) in the specific case of Palestinian refugees, and international voluntary agencies. And even where host countries can provide education for refugees with asylum in their country, there is a need to create more awareness of their educational needs and rights.

Although the obligation of the international community to assist with refugee education is clear, it is an item which is usually low on the agenda of organisations aiding refugees. Education is recognised as important for citizens at home, but once they become refugees, it is too often assumed to be a luxury when compared to other areas of assistance such as shelter, water, food and medical care. This response is partly due to a tendency to equate refugee assistance with the provision of emergency relief to large groups of people on a short-term basis. Such relief must, of course, have overall priority but need not exclude educational provision. Aid agencies too readily assume that refugees' needs are limited, and optimistically ignore the fact that most short-term refugee situations become long-term.

In this report we argue for recognition of the special importance of education to refugees and of the importance of initiating education programmes at the emergency stage. In doing this we base our case on the experience of many different refugee situations and on the needs expressed by refugees.

## 2. The refugees' view

Refugees see the situation differently from aid agencies. They place a far higher priority on education than many of the agencies which offer assistance. This differing perception of the role of education becomes particularly marked during the emergency phase. The voices and actions of refugees in many third world countries claim education as a basic need from the beginning of a refugee influx. While agencies seldom even consider providing any education at this stage, refugee communities frequently take the initiative and start classes for children with whatever resources they have at their disposal, using exiled teachers or simply older children with some recent experience of school to create basic education programmes. Other levels of educational need are similarly regarded as important. Those who have fled into exile while studying at university or secondary school are aware that if they do not resume their education as soon as possible, they may never be able to return to study. And adults who are unschooled or little educated see education as a vital means of helping in their own welfare, to assist with community organisations, with improving health, with developing a new life. Often such education must include literacy, which becomes a priority need in the new environment.

The Tigrayan refugees who entered the Sudan in large numbers in 1984/85 are an example of a community which although destitute placed a high priority on education. It was understood by all concerned – host government, UNHCR and the refugee community – that the refugees would return home as soon as food stocks within Tigray allowed. It was anticipated that their stay in the Sudan would be brief. Because aid agencies did not accord to education the same priority as other areas of assistance, no official provision was made. But the refugees' own organisation, the Relief Society of Tigray (REST), without official support, and with very limited resources, attempted to organise its own basic education programme which, within six months, was reaching 25,000 children and adults.

In Indo-China the refugees similarly took the initiative in establishing education programmes for themselves:

> Initially, when refugees first arrived in Thailand, education activities were organised by the refugees themselves. The former teachers and educated persons organised classes to teach children basic skills in their respective national languages.[3]

The importance of involving refugees in the design and implementation of education programmes is a central theme of this report. This clearly makes sense in educational terms, for students, whether children or adults, are likely to learn best if programmes are designed to meet needs they themselves have recognised. However, self-help efforts on the part of the refugees in developing educational programmes early in their period of exile are often left unsupported by refugee agencies for too long. Instead of building on community efforts, parallel and separate eduation programmes are often developed later. Lack of provision for education in the emergency phase may have serious implications for the effectiveness of education programmes for refugees in the longer term.

The motivation of refugees in developing educational programmes from the outset needs to be better understood. Education plays a special role in helping individuals and communities to cope with the trauma of exile. Most refugees come from third world societies which place the highest priority on education in national development programmes. Small wonder that education becomes of special importance when an individual or family is displaced against their will. Uniquely amongst the services which refugees may receive in exile, education provides a sense of purpose in a situation which might otherwise seem to be without hope. Education in exile can provide adults with skills which will assist their survival until return home becomes possible. Parents, despite their own hopelessness, see education as the only hope for their children. Palestinian parents, for example, have attached importance to schooling since their exile began:

> At the time of great privation immediately after the 1948 hostilities, refugee parents even offered to accept reduced food rations if this would provide funds for their children's education. This awareness of the importance of education to the Palestinian refugee has, if anything, increased since then. For them the education and professional achievement of their children represent not only a vital practical necessity but also a form of moral support and a source of pride, the pride of a people who have little else.[4]

Education can be important in providing orientation in adjusting to a foreign environment. For Central Americans in Mexico:

> Given the fact that the return to Guatemala or El Salvador is not imminent, refugee parents are faced with the fact that their children need to adapt in some ways in order to survive in a foreign country.[5]

Beyond mere physical survival education can be a means through which refugees can maintain their cultural identity and gain the pyschological support for life in exile. Recording a thirty-year partnership between UNRWA and Unesco in the service of Palastinian education, Hussein Feridun writes:

> It is obvious that the UNRWA/Unesco Department of Education provides registered Palestine refugees with essential educational services. Less obvious, but perhaps equally important, is that the educational system has significantly contributed to the preservation of the cultural identity of a displaced and dispersed people.[6]

Refugees are cut off from their roots – their homes, families, farms, jobs. On arrival in a foreign land they have both physical and psychological needs. These vary greatly with local circumstances, from the need for rural refugees in camps to obtain practical skills which may lead to an income, to learning the language of the host country in order to participate in trade or education where opportunities exist. An education programme designed at the beginning of a refugee influx to meet needs for survival in the short term can lead on to more formal education programmes in the longer term. Those who interrupt secondary school or further or higher education at the time of becoming a refugee, need to find a means of continuing as soon as possible before knowledge is lost.

Exile can bring new possibilities, a second chance, for those with negative experiences of education in their country of origin. This is particularly the case for refugees from South Africa and Namibia:

> Academically, most have been poisoned by Bantu Education and are weak, particularly in the natural sciences and mathematics, in which their former tuition gave them no opportunities.[7]

In very different circumstances rural refugees from Afghanistan bring into exile deep suspicions about formal education and there is a need to overcome what has been described as an 'Anti-School Complex'.[8]

There may be new possibilities too for adults, particularly those who have missed out on education altogether:

> There is recognition for the need for adult education, but that is still pending. Church workers note that the majority of young people are *analphabetos* [illiterate], and they are trying to begin some programs. These same workers, together with the women refugees, are promoting small education/group work projects: making yoghurt, cultivating and studying medicinal herbs. The key concept in these initiatives is that each one teaches others.[9]

Compensating for gaps in previous education can be particularly important for women, who form the majority of the refugee population. Assistance in the field of education, as a recently published report[10] highlighted, can be one of the few positive aspects for women in a refugee camp but needs to be carefully designed not to reproduce inequalities:

> Where education does exist, it is offered predominantly to men, since they are thought to be heads of households and therefore more in need of education. In South East Asia education is often largely language training for resettlement; its employment orientation leads to a concentration on men. Other camps offer educational projects which are irrelevant to women, and which undermine, rather than strengthen, the roles which refugee women have been accustomed to playing in their countries.[11]

The case for education as a priority is therefore supported by many refugee groups. This support is particularly clear in those cases where they have themselves established schools at an early stage. For primary-age children, schooling is important simply to keep them occupied. But more importantly it helps build for the future for all children, both primary and secondary, and provides continuity with the past, restoring purpose to an otherwise meaningless existence: 'the pride of a people who have little else'.

For adults, education must be more related to the present. It is education for survival, to learn a new language and acquire basic skills for coping in the new environment. People have to adjust their life styles and make a living. They may have to create a new community or adapt to an existing one. Educational assistance is a priority, particularly for those with little experience of change or little formal schooling. Above all, education can help boost morale and preserve an identity that is particularly at risk in the first months of exile.

## 3. The reality of educational provision for refugees

Education is thus seen as a priority by refugees and is an area of critical importance to the future development of refugee communities. But the picture which emerges from our study is one of *ad hoc* programmes, often developed outside the context of an overall strategy for refugee education. Education, far from being central to discussions relating to refugee assistance, is often not on the agenda at all. Provision throughout the world is uneven and often inadequate. Education is assumed to be the responsibility of others and in practice the major burden falls on the hard-pressed Ministries of Education of host governments.

Osman Saleh from the Eritrean Relief Association has outlined the position in the Sudan – one of the world's poorest countries hosting one of the world's largest refugee populations – from the perspective of a refugee-based organisation:

> Education of refugee children is provided by UNHCR/COR [Commissioner for Refugees] and private organisations. In the urban areas, refugee children can also attend government schools. The existing capacity is small, and the opportunity for refugee children is limited. A very high percentage of refugee children are left without any educational opportunity. A Euro Action Acord survey report of Port Sudan shows the figure to be very high. The report points out that over 65% of the refugee school-aged children in the town do not go to school; in some quarters of the town it is as high as 93%. In the entire region of Kassala, refugee students who attended Sudanese government schools at the primary and intermediate levels in 1982–83 were 7,111 and 1,344 respectively; at the secondary level the number of refugee students attending government schools is so small that the regional ministry does not consider them to add anything to the educational expense at that level . . . The opportunity at higher institutions of education is even slimmer.[12]

Similar views might be echoed by refugees in many parts of the world.

A central problem has been the lack of coherent policy on refugee education, one result of the lack of a focus internationally on refugee education. The UNHR which, second to host governments, shoulders the major burden of paying for refugee education, does not claim to be an agency with particular expertise in education. Unesco, the United Nations agency with that responsibility, has been able to give only limited assistance through the secondment of a few consultants, although more substantial assistance is offered to UNRWA in the form of professional advice to its educational programme for Palestinian refugees. A variety of voluntary agencies attempt to fill the gaps, but are often constrained by the reluctance of their donors to fund formal education programmes, which are seen to be the responsibility of national governments.

Planning refugee education is difficult. There are no clear national boundaries to determine policy on language and curriculum, no certainties about the objectives of education in the short term and no clear long-term goals. Should education programmes be planned in the context of the development of the country and region of asylum or of that of the home country, in preparation for return? The third of the three durable solutions so often quoted by UNHCR is for education as a preparation for resettlement and life in another continent altogether. The future of a refugee community is uncertain at the outset and seldom clarifies with time. Nor can there be freedom to determine the nature of education with reference only to the needs of refugees and the demands of their future lives, even were these known. Refugees are essentially guests in another country and the policy objectives of the national education programme have also to be taken into account. Given the complexity of reconciling different views and the lack of clear objectives, it is not surprising that clear policy guidelines for the implementation of refugee education programmes have not been developed.

The best guide to the development of such policy is the experience of past and current programmes. Some of the experience is negative, indicating approaches to avoid; some is positive, and provides models of good practice. Although each refugee situation has unique characteristics, there are common experiences from which we can learn. But to do this, better mechanisms need to be found for the sharing of information.

The need to improve the exchange of information on such experience is a priority. The workshop and the case studies commissioned for it were seen as a first step. A brief survey of the published literature indicates the paucity of material on refugee education. Not only is knowledge not shared between continents and regions, but it is seldom exchanged even within a single country.

UNHCR may be unaware of education programmes which are being carried out by refugee organisations and refugees are unaware of the possibility of seeking funding from official sources for their programmes. Sometimes the lack of clarity about official and, in particular, host government policy with regard to refugee education may discourage the circulation of information. But despite the sensitivities that inevitably surround education, so closely related is it to national development objectives, there is a need for open debate.

More debate will help clarify appropriate mechanisms for the delivery of refugee education. This must include consultation with those refugees who will benefit, as well as with the local community. Education for refugees can bring benefits for the whole community, and local consultation and co-ordination at an early stage will smooth the way for the future. Education programmes must also be related to other sectors of refugee assistance, just as those other sectors need to take account of educational priorities and include an educational component in their programmes. The role of the 'outside' agency, whether this be an inter-governmental agency such as UNHCR or a voluntary agency, needs to be clarified in relation to local structures. Improved co-ordination at the national and international level needs particular attention, as it is critical for the improvement of refugee education. Also critical is the involvement of educationalists; they need to provide the kind of professional services to education programmes which for some years health professionals have provided for refugee health programmes. In one sense, at the local level, and within refugee communities, individuals or groups of teachers have already done this. But this interest has seldom been paralleled at the national or international level, where education for refugees has tended to be regarded as a question of building classrooms and paying teachers, or transporting individuals elsewhere on scholarships, rather than concern for the nature and quality of the local education provided.

Resources, particularly financial resources, are also critical for refugee education. As national governments in third world countries spend a high proportion of their budgets on education, there is a demand for expenditure on a comparable scale for refugees. Indeed if the obligations of the international conventions to provide equal treatment to refugees and citizens in education are to be realised, spending in this area will need to be substantial. It is difficult to assess the current level of support for refugee education. Many of the costs are hidden within the national education budgets, particularly where large numbers of refugee children are absorbed into local schools. UNHCR itself does not produce figures that permit the easy identification of the proportion of its budget spent on education, as the costs of primary education are subsumed under budget headings for local settlement. Only post-primary education through to tertiary education is separately itemised.[13] More information on the level and type of expenditure would be helpful, particularly when related to an evaluation of the effectiveness of different programmes. This might permit some guidelines to desirable target levels for expenditure at different levels of education. But it does seem clear from the case studies and discussions at the workshop that vastly increased levels of expenditure are necessary if refugees are to be given anything approaching adequate educational provision.

## Conclusion

The case for refugee education to be given higher priority is strong. Education is vital to the stability and development of every refugee community as well as a natural priority for each individual child and adult in the struggle for survival in exile. The problems posed in the provision of refugee education are complex and solutions are not always easily identifiable. Increased exchange of information, discussion and debate and improved co-ordination are important if the quality of what is provided is to be improved. But the first step is for the education of refugees to be recognised as an area requiring more serious consideration by the governments and agencies committed to assisting refugees. The next chapter aims to identify and list matters for such special consideration, and suggests strategies for meeting those needs.

### Notes

1. *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*, Article 26, 1948.
2. *Convention relating to the Status of Refugees*, United Nations, Geneva, 1951.
3. Case study 8, p.3.
4. *UNRWA/Unesco Department of Education 1982–1983*, UNRWA/Unesco Department of Education, Vienna.
5. Case study 9, p.6.
6. Hussein Husnu Feridun, 'UNRWA and Unesco: a thirty-year partnership', *Unesco Courier*, June 1980, p.33.

7. Case study 11, p.2.
8. Case study 10, p.3.
9. Case study 9, p.6.
10. L. Bonnerjea, *Shaming the World: The Needs of Women Refugees*, CHANGE and WUS (UK) 1985.
11. Bonnerjea, *Shaming the World*, p.12.
12. Case study 13, pp.4–5.
13. In 1984, the UNHCR committed US$7,074,488 for 13,343 refugees at lower-secondary level and US$6,145,792 for 4,448 refugees at higher levels. Similar figures are not available for primary schooling. (Information from R. Robinson, UNHCR, Geneva.)

CHAPTER 2

# *Educational Needs and How to Meet Them*

This chapter is an attempt to draw up a list of educational needs which can be identified among refugees and indicate some of the ways in which such needs can be met. It includes, where possible, indications of major characteristics and prerequisites of such programmes where these seem to be common or essential features. It also includes as many examples as possible of programmes already in operation. Inevitably, the list is far from comprehensive.

The list is divided into the traditional categories or levels of education as this seems to be the easiest way of classifying them. Equally important, however, is the attempt to distinguish between programmes that should and can be initiated at the emergency stages of refugee crises, as soon as some kind of organisation or administration however temporary has replaced the chaos of sudden flight into exile, and the steps which can and should be taken as more stable refugee communities with basic social structures and facilities begin to emerge. This attempt is made in each category or level.

## 1. Primary education and primary teacher training

It is quite clear, from many examples, that it is necessary and possible to establish makeshift primary schools at a very early stage of a refugee crisis, almost immediately the initial chaos of flight has turned into some kind of settlement or camp structure, however temporary. Gathering primary-school-age children together and organising some kind of educational activity for them immediately improves the morale of the community. It also gives parents, often single parents, the relief and time they need to carry out their other urgent responsibilities. Such 'schools' may be in tents or under trees or in any form of shelter, at least to start with, and will gradually improve their physical facilities. The children themselves can be organised to participate in the preparation and construction of such makeshift schools.

Very often the refugees themselves take the initiative in establishing such schools, almost without resources and often with few or no trained personnel. In Djibouti, for example:

> Since the beginning, the camps have had many small Koranic schools, mostly open air groups of children learning to recite the Koran from a religious teacher.[1]

In Thailand, primary schools were organised by refugees at an early stage, and similar initiatives have been reported in Pakistan and the Sudan. Such initiatives are often taken by refugee religious or political organisations. The spontaneity of such refugee self-help projects makes for speed. Usually the first educational activities in refugee communities are set up in this way. They may have very few or no resources, but they are unhampered by bureaucratic delays and they thus provide the very first community development activities and the first injections of hope in the future which are so vital in the emergency stages of a refugee crisis. The role of refugee leadership in such developments is important. Where no obvious organisations among the refugees exist to provide such leadership, an alternative is to identify informal leaders and to involve them in self-help educational initiatives of this kind. They need immediate support from national and international agencies in order to help them to reach out as widely as possible, and should be integrated with later, larger-scale national or international schemes.

It is highly unlikely that there will be adequate supplies of suitable teaching materials immediately available to such emergency programmes. It is therefore important to set up, as soon as possible, a materials production operation, however basic, which can produce very simple teaching/learning materials to help, guide and support the teachers. These should include pictures and charts, and teachers' programmes and lesson plans. One unusual example, from Eritrean and Tigrayan refugees in the Sudan, of such a programme set up by refugees, is the use of children in advanced classes to copy out text materials by hand for use by junior classes. Also needed are immediate supplies of writing materials such as pens, pencils and paper.

Such materials and lesson plans often determine the initial timetable or curriculum for these emergency schools, especially where most of the teachers are untrained. They should therefore be

of settlement makes the collection of information about them almost impossible. This is made many times worse in places where host governments are striving to prevent such spontaneous settlement and integration of refugees and where their identification might lead to their removal. Examples of these difficulties can be found in case studies on Mexico City and the Sudan. Second, there is the problem of overcrowding and the natural inclination of host societies to provide primary-school places first to their own nationals and only when there are places to spare to refugees. Finally, there is a more pronounced need in such places to make special provision for the cultural and linguistic needs of refugees. And yet refugee conventions insist that equal access at least to primary school be provided to refugee children as to the children of the host societies. The obvious, possibly the only, way of providing such opportunities is through making special provision for refugees in national primary schools in such communities and by external support for the expansion of such schools in response to this need. In Swaziland among urban South African refugees some special provision is made at selected primary schools for refugee children, financed by UNHCR. In Pakistan a new experiment has been launched in the provision of extra resources, including extra places and extra in-service teacher education, in certain districts of the North West Frontier Province where Afghan refugees are concentrated. The scheme aims to be of equal benefit to host villages and to refugee families settled around them. Such projects are very much in line with the strategy of parallel or integrated development between host and refugee societies agreed at ICARA II.

## 2. Secondary education

Secondary eduation also has an important place in refugee education. It is true that in many contemporary refugee communities the number for whom such facilities are appropriate is quite small. On the other hand in many refugee crises, secondary education students have helped to spearhead resistance and opposition to the regimes from which they have fled; they have sacrificed their educational prospects in the process of becoming refugees. For them, to find ways of continuing their studies in exile is a priority. Yet in the emergency stages of a refugee crisis, there are usually few opportunities for such students to continue their studies. It is indeed not clear how far it is possible to provide a wide range of post-primary education facilities at the emergency stage of a refugee crisis. Moreover, we must recognise that those with a full primary education are at this stage a valuable resource within their community, either as potential primary school teachers, or workers in health, construction, and community relief services. Despite these difficulties and conflicting interests, it is important to take the first steps in providing secondary education from the start, first to the few, then to increasing numbers. For those whose education is interrupted in midstream, a long interval before restarting could result in permanent damage to the students' performance and chances of success.

Traditionally the most common answer to such secondary education needs has been to provide scholarships to existing secondary institutions. Usually, at this level, places are provided in host government secondary schools (or in some cases, as in the Sudan, in private or non-government agency secondary schools). Where the number of students qualified to enter secondary schools is low, as was the case in Somalia in 1981, this can sometimes be a satisfactory answer; but in most third world countries, the competition amongst nationals for places at secondary school is intense and growing, and it becomes increasingly difficult for governments to direct their scarce secondary-school resources to refugees. In some cases scholarships are found for secondary-level refugee students in schools in countries other than their countries of first refuge. Such cases are inevitably rare and it is difficult to ensure that the education so provided is appropriate. The provision of scholarships is costly and there is a danger that, when refugees are sponsored away from their place of settlement, refugee communities are drained of their most educated human resources. However, it is sometimes the only immediate solution, and there are some occasions where it offers a satisfactory long-term investment if carefully planned and monitored.

There are in many communities, however, a significant number of potential secondary-level students who urgently need a bridging, or remedial up-grading programme. They may have left home just before completing primary education; they may have had a long break since completing and have forgotten some of what they learned; or they may have suffered from a low-standard discriminatory system of primary education in their home country. Such a remedial programme can be vital in equipping a much larger number of refugees for further training. Examples of such programmes have recently been launched among Namibian and South African refugees. The Namibian Extension Unit in Zambia and the South African Extension Unit in Tanzania working

respectively with Namibian and South African refugees, both introduced as their first courses basic mathematics and English courses which offer such a stepping stone to either vocational training or more formal education.

Such methods, especially correspondence education, linked if possible with self-help study groups and study centre programmes, offer an important way of providing remedial programmes, as well as more advanced secondary education facilities. There is increasing recognition of the potential of this method , which has the immense advantages of keeping such students within their communities and allowing for part-time study. The Educational Resource Centre (ERC) at Dukwe in Botswana described how it started to use distance-teaching methods as follows:

> The main purpose of starting the ERC was to provide refugees with an opportunity to further their studies whilst in exile. It was then run like any other secondary school in Botswana except for two deviations from the normal school system.
>
> (a) The students enrolled at the centre on arrival and did not have to wait until the beginning of the next term or year.
>
> (b) The students sat for the London GCE examinations which are twice a year (January and June), instead of the Cambridge 'O' Level examinations which are in November.
>
> In late 1981 the centre adopted the distance teaching method of learning because of the two deviations stated above, with two variations from the normal distance teaching system.
>
> (a) The students and tutors are all residents of Dukwe and therefore can be able to meet almost every day.
>
> (b) The classrooms, desks, chairs and generally all the necessary equipment that a normal secondary school would require are available at ERC.
>
> The advantages of the distance teaching institution were seen as being:
>
> (a) Students would enrol at any time of the year and work through all the workbooks and assignments at their own pace.
>
> (b) Teachers/tutors would not have to force students into class every day but would arrange a flexible schedule whereby the students could work on their own and also consult the tutors, who are available.
>
> (c) Students can even register for one subject at a time, unlike in the formal system.[3]

Another way of supporting individuals and groups of refugees seeking secondary education is to establish less formal educational resource centres and libraries in refugee settlements, or even in towns where refugees are spontaneously settled. Such centres provide refugees with suitable places and conditions for study as well as with access to appropriate courses, textbooks and other supplementary study facilities. They can also be places through which special advisory, counselling and tutorial services are made available. Several examples of such centres can be cited. In Swaziland, Ephesus House has provided educational advisory and counselling services to South African urban refugees and has sought to provide help to such students in enrolling for appropriate part-time courses. More recently in 1980 in Djibouti, WUS helped to establish such a centre to support educational activities among Somali refugees from Ethiopia. In Yei in the southern Sudan the Ugandan refugee community took the initiative and established what has now become a community library, supported by local government, UNHCR and WUS, to serve the needs of refugees and nationals. Such resource centres must be carefully structured and publicised. Self-help secondary education is by no means easy, and without sufficient or consistent support students' hopes and expectations will be falsely raised and high drop-out and failure rates will lead to increased frustration.

Occasionally, probably quite rarely, and almost certainly at a post-emergency stage, fully fledged secondary schools are built for refugee communities. Secondary schools are expensive, and there are rarely enough students initially in one place to justify such an institution. There are a few examples, including the Sudan and Swaziland, where UNHCR has financed the building of one or a few secondary institutions for the host government in appropriate places, in return for places at other national schools for refugees for whom these special schools are inconvenient. Two examples of refugee secondary schools are the Loudima School, established by and for SWAPO in Congo Brazzaville, and the ANC Solomon Mahlangu Freedom College in Tanzania. As refugee communities become more settled societies, it is likely that the need for secondary schools will grow. First, such communities, even if in isolated places, are often very large. Second, as the

primary school provision suggested earlier becomes settled, it soon begins to produce a large number of primary-school leavers and a natural and reasonable demand for secondary schooling.

## 3. Higher education

Access to higher education is important for a small but significant group amongst the refugee population. In certain circumstances, for example in Latin America and southern Africa, the educated may form the majority, at least in the initial phase. Access for this group to higher education is critical for the development of their country of origin when return home becomes possible.

Provision at this level is usually in the form of scholarships to individuals. But it is necessary to look beyond the humanitarian needs of an individual, anxious to continue his or her education, and assess the contribution such assistance will give to the refugee community as a whole, and to the country and region of origin. Striking the right balance between humanitarian and developmental interests places a heavy responsibility on agencies administering scholarships. Regular discussion with representatives of refugee groups is important to establish broad policy guidelines.

To avoid the danger of refugees being removed and alienated from their communities, care has to be taken to design scholarship programmes appropriate to each specific refugee group. Critical areas for consideration are:

- to identify which educational levels have priority for support, e.g. further education, undergraduate or postgraduate;
- to identify appropriate institutions/countries of study;
- to assess the potential for useful employment on completion, in the region or country of origin or country of permanent settlement.

This last is most critical, and has too often been forgotten in the past.

To carry out a successful programme, it is necessary to consider:

- assessment and initial testing of refugees' educational levels (educational certificates have often been left at home); selection and counselling for appropriate courses of study;
- placement;
- language and study skills training (where necessary);
- counselling during the period of study.

The responsibility of sponsoring agencies for maintaining contact with students should not end with the completion of studies. Support and advice during the search for relevant employment are important. Work experience programmes or internships can be explored as a means of integrating the refugee into worthwhile employment. The latter may be of particular importance where refugees have studied outside their region of origin and where their skills are needed within their own communities. Several programmes already exist designed to forge this link between study and employment. Examples include the secondment of graduates of the United Nations Institute for Namibia's public administration course to African governments, and the experience of the Phelps Stokes Foundation in reintegrating refugees into relevant employment in their region of origin after study in the United States. WUS (UK) will shortly complete a study on employment opportunities for qualified refugees from the Horn of Africa which will point to possible ways in which scholarship programmes might need to be redesigned to relate to the realities of the employment market. It will also make practical recommendations as to how current obstacles to refugee employment might be overcome.

## 4. Vocational education

Vocational education and training is a broad field of education. It includes teacher training, which we have treated together with primary education. It also includes training for people who have completed primary or basic education, which therefore assumes both literacy and numeracy, as well as basic skills training for people with very little or no formal education. The latter will be dealt with as a subsection of non-formal education. Here only post-primary vocational education is catalogued.

At the emergency stage of a refugee crisis there are, always, a large number of jobs to be performed as part of the relief operation. These include skilled technical jobs in transport, construction, buildings and machine maintenance, agriculture, nursing and stores control. In all cases it is possible to employ refugees for these jobs, but in many it is only possible if the employment is in the form of apprenticeship, with a carefully structured and planned training element as an integral part of the employment package. It is necessary to employ one or more trained and skilled technicians, attached to a team of trainees or apprentices. The skilled technicians may themselves be refugees if there are any so qualified; if not, to begin with, it may be necessary to employ skilled national technicians or even foreigners. The training must be organised, carefully controlled and supported and must lead to recognised trade tests. The refugee apprentices employed in such a scheme must be people who have completed basic or primary education. In this way considerable numbers of refugees can be employed and can also be given thorough practical and vocational training. An example of the provision of such apprenticeship training is the ANC work unit scheme at their settlement in Tanzania:

> The Somafco Education Complex comprises a number of production projects which complement the educational sector. The aim of these projects is two-fold: firstly, to enable students and workers to receive vocational training and, secondly, to enable Somafco to be as self-sufficient as possible.
>
> A massive construction programme was begun in 1979. To date, 18 classrooms, 5 laboratories, 3 dormitory units (each housing 144 students), 82 staff houses, an administration block, a Nursery School, Day-Care Centre, hospital and a number of other buildings have been built, while a number of other buildings – a primary school, library, etc. – are under construction.
>
> Agriculture is another prominent activity which provides the community with 30% of its food needs. The animal husbandry section has cattle, goats, pigs and poultry and the production plan for crops and horticulture includes maize, sorghum, sunflower, beans, lucerne, citrus trees, bananas . . .
>
> A number of small industries add to self-sufficiency. These are workshops for clothing, leather goods, carpentry, welding, motor vehicles and for electrical repairs.[4]

As a refugee community becomes more settled, there is often a demand for more institutionalised vocational training centres. Such centres are extremely expensive to set up and can usually only cater for a small number of trainees. In a few cases, as among Namibian refugees in Angola and Ethiopian refugees in the Sudan, such centres have been set up. In the latter case this has been on a shared basis with the host government. In the Middle East the UNRWA/Unesco Institute of Education has helped to develop a comprehensive system of vocational education centres for Palestinian refugees in various countries.

Such schemes should provide practical on-the-job experience, and aim to link the skills provided to those required in the community. It is also important to ensure that, in both cases, training leads to certificates and trade tests which are recognised in the host country and, if possible, abroad.

It is almost impossible to suggest the vocational skills for which it is appropriate to offer training in the two ways described above without a detailed consideration of the employment opportunities available, both in a particular refugee community and in the host country in which it is situated. The provision of vocational training for refugees, however, which is becoming increasingly popular among the aid agencies, in preference to aid for traditional formal education, must take care to learn from the far-from-glorious history of third world vocational training generally. At least four important cautions, sometimes contradictory, need to be listed: first the importance, and the difficulty, of relating vocational training to actual employment opportunities; secondly, the need to make it ultimately possible for individuals to follow their own vocational ambitions in spite of general and recognised employment trends; thirdly the necessity for regular and appropriate practical training and experience as part of any vocational training scheme and the extreme difficulty of doing so realistically and economically; and finally the as yet unsolved problem of preventing vocational training from being seen as second-best to advanced academic education and therefore something fit only for educational failures.

## 5. Non-formal education

Non-formal education is normally taken to comprise any organised educational activity which takes place outside the formal education system. Here we have restricted our discussion to two key areas of non-formal education: education for adults with no formal schooling; and education for all concerning community welfare and development.

*(a) Basic skills training*

At both the emergency stage and the settlement stage of refugee communities there are a large number of basic skills required, for example:

- road-building;
- construction;
- medical orderlies;
- vaccination schemes;
- clothes making;
- forestry;
- agriculture: crop protection; animal husbandry; agricultural equipment and machines;
- mechanical workshop activities/motor mechanics;
- craftwork: shoe-making; carpentry; basket-work.

In all of these jobs people with no formal education can be employed, as well as those with some schooling. They can be taught basic skills through demonstration and practice, many of them linked to and facilitating the work of emergency teams. Such links can and should be made, with a conscious training element as part of the scheme, rather than employing outside labour on contract. Important skills which need to be taught in conjunction with many of the above are basic book-keeping and business management skills, which of course require some literacy and numeracy.

*(b) Health education*

A major need in almost all large refugee communities is to learn how to minimise or prevent health hazards in new and unfamiliar, usually crowded and ill-equipped, living conditions. The first priority is to stress preventative medicine and public health, and most of this depends on organised learning opportunities. Obvious examples of subjects are:

- child care;
- environmental sanitation/hygiene;
- nutrition;
- traditional birth attendance/prenatal and postnatal care;
- primary health care.

Where refugees can themselves take curative steps to overcome sickness and accidents (e.g. first aid), educational programmes are required to help them to do so.

*(c) Literacy education*

In many refugee communities initiatives are taken by the refugees themselves to set up adult literacy schemes. Such initiatives may need help to concentrate on functional literacy and to produce materials which reflect this emphasis. Literacy schemes can help raise morale amongst communities of refugees where the majority of the adults have had no previous educational opportunities. Examples of such schemes include the self-help literacy schemes of Zimbabwean refugees in Dukwe and work among the Hmong refugees from Laos in Ban Vinai in Northern Thailand. In most cases, however, both educational and morale-boosting purposes can best be served if literacy projects grow out of or run parallel to other development programmes, rather than if they are introduced on their own. They should be used to broaden opportunities for refugees to become workers and instructors in both emergency and development schemes. The examples of family life programmes in Somalia and of women's literacy programmes in Thailand show this process in action.

An important consideration in literacy schemes is the language used. Evidence suggests that mother-tongue literacy is more likely to be successful. It also serves to sustain cultural identity

amongst refugees forced to live in an alien culture. Normally one would plan to teach adults to read in their first language, and would hope that such a practice would be adopted by refugees, at least for initial literacy. There can, however, be difficult issues to resolve. There are often strong arguments in favour of providing literacy in an accepted *lingua franca* where refugees come from many different language groups, or in the language of the host country in order to facilitate day-to-day communication and integration. Literacy education, like primary education, opens doors to a series of complex language questions relevant to refugee education generally.

*(d) Community education*

Refugee communities are by definition new societies. Often they bring people from different origins and cultures together in unfamiliar social structures. The organisational demands are urgent and often familiar. Education can help with, for example:

- leadership and community organisation;
- committee procedures;
- co-operative organisation;
- religious bodies or political party organisation requirements;
- public management and administration;
- office organisation;
- book-keeping.

There are many examples of small-scale one-off adult and non-formal education programmes. But we have heard of no comprehensive mass adult education programmes with resources remotely comparable to those made available to primary school schemes or even to limited scholarship schemes. The need for much larger, much more generously resourced and more comprehensively planned adult non-formal education schemes was nevertheless emphasised time and again at the workshop. Only a recognition of the importance of such schemes both to survival and to the intermediate and long-term development and integration of refugee communities is likely to untie the resources and organisational impetus such schemes would need.

## 6. Training of trainers

For all the categories of vocational training and non-formal education described above, it is necessary to provide on-the-job training and support services to the training staff working in such programmes, similar to those needed in teacher training. Examples of those to be trained are community health workers, family life educators, argicultural extension workers, community development workers, vocational and basic skill trainers.

As in teacher in-service education, such training of trainers requires the creation of an effective support and supervision infrastructure, including the following:

- a network of regular and effective supervision;
- follow-up and support of initial in-service training;
- provision of regular and practical support/teaching materials;
- instructions on how to use such materials;
- two-way flow of information from centre to field and from field to centre and accurate records of activity and progress.

It is important to create, through such training and support systems, career structures and opportunities for promotion within refugee education programmes.

## Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to provide a catalogue of refugee educational needs and possible strategies to meet those needs. We see it as a first step in the design of refugee education.

In many contemporary refugee crises, the educational requirements are dominated by the problem of scale – how to provide emergency education for huge numbers of children, youth and adults – on minimum resources. This in no way undervalues the many small-scale projects which occur in large-scale crises, or lessens the importance of providing education in the many crises

around the world involving comparatively small numbers of refugees. But it does, in turn, put pressure on the providers to move quickly from pilot experimental programmes, usually necessary to try out any particular approach before pouring in large resources, to full-scale operation for large numbers.

It also gives emphasis to the necessity, because of limited resources – buildings, materials, personnel – to maximise their use at all levels and for all kinds of education. This requires a high degree of integration and co-ordination of programmes.

In order to set up educational programmes quickly which are capable of reaching large numbers in any refugee community, and thereby to have a significant impact on the life of the community, it is vital to carry out a rapid but comprehensive survey in order to establish the needs, the numbers at various levels, the possible directions and the existing resources and personnel within the community. For that purpose, there is a need to produce a checklist of considerations which must be taken into account in planning emergency education programmes. Such a checklist would be based on previous experience in other refugee crises, and would therefore need to be updated from time to time. Its purpose would be to ensure that an emergency needs assessment survey would be as comprehensive as possible and would take into account the practical experience of what can and should and cannot or should not be done both at the emergency stage and later. It would also attempt to make sure that consideration was given from the outset to both formal and non-formal education and to the needs of people of various ages and educational backgrounds.

It is crucial to contact and involve refugee representatives and organisational structures, be they formal or informal, from the outset, even before the survey is conducted. These should include women, who often form the majority in a refugee community, but are usually unrepresented in formal social structures.

It is equally important that even before such a survey is conducted there is full consultation where feasible with the host goverment, in order to seek its support and permission; any such survey should be done in collaboration with the host government in order to ensure that the interests and problems of the host society are fully taken into account, as far as is appropriate and possible.

This chapter should be seen as a framework for devising a checklist. In the next chapter we elaborate the framework by developing discussion of certain key themes and perspectives.

## Notes

1. Case study 2, p.3.
2. Case study 12, p.7.
3. Case study 5, p.2.
4. Case study 11, pp.6–7.

CHAPTER 3

# *Themes and Problems*

A number of themes emerge as we consider the problems and constraints in providing adequate educational services to refugees. These concern the differences between refugee groups and their circumstances and the curriculum that is offered to them.

## 1. A typology of refugee situations

Both needs and constraints vary with refugees' circumstances. The development of any general policy needs to begin with an understanding of the different types of refugee situations. Some key dimensions are:

- short-stay *versus* long-stay populations;
- intention to integrate into host country *versus* intention to return or resettle;
- politically organised *versus* unorganised populations;
- camp-settled *versus* spontaneously settled populations;
- host government hospitable *versus* hostile to refugees;
- cultural and linguistic homogeneity *versus* heterogeneity of host society and refugees.

Each of these dimensions may overlap with others and each has different implications for the type of education possible and desirable. It might be that where refugee populations have similar characteristics on this typology, their experiences may have sufficient in common to draw general conclusions.

Experience suggests some possible generalisations, described below.

### *(a) Short- and long-stay populations*

The term 'short-stay' is used to describe those who expect to stay only a short while – weeks or months – in the host country. Refugee overflows in the aftermath of a natural catastrophe or temporary civil disturbance provide examples of these types of populations. The refugees themselves usually expect to return home shortly, while the host country sees their presence as transient, before return home or, occasionally, onward movement to a third country. Thus refugees and hosts often agree that the stay is intended to be short, although sometimes the refugee groups will wish to be more cautious about returning home than the host government desires.

Even if refugees stay only a short while, they need education: refugees themselves stress that they see it as a priority. This may be schooling for children, to minimise the disruption in their lives, or immediately relevant skills for the adults. Teaching needs to be in the mother tongue, and adapted to home culture.

In practice, many people become refugees thinking their situation is short-term, but end up in prolonged exile. The Palestinians, for example, left their homes over 35 years ago, thinking they would return in a few weeks. Such a situation affects the attitudes towards education of both providers and receivers. Afghanis in Pakistan, for example, do not want a foreign education:

> An important factor militating against the possibility of a serious education programme is the attitude of the Afghan refugees themselves. They are totally against any plan which might suggest a long stay in Pakistan. Most of these refugees who are here for some five or six years, had come in the hope that they would return back to Afghanistan within one year.[1]

The unpredictability of the future for refugees makes optimism dangerous. In this case, many Afghani children have remained unschooled. It can thus be unhelpful to classify groups of people as short-stay, or to restrict their access to education as a result of such classification.

Long-stay refugees thus include those who expect to return home whenever a desired change occurs, though their exile may have been prolonged. There are also those who do not intend to

return to their country of birth, and see themselves as settling permanently in their new country. For all these, there is a need for some sort of development programme and education for employment. When long stay is coupled with an intention to *integrate*, education in the host-country language (where different from that of the refugees) and in the host-country curriculum may be desirable. Where long stay is coupled with a desire to *return*, programmes will tend to emphasise the kind of skills necessary to contribute to the development of the country of origin and will need to keep alive the home culture.

This distinction provides us with a framework for educational policy. The issues of return, of manpower planning and nation building can be linked with political organisation, discussed in the next section, while discussion of the issues of integration and curriculum will then follow.

While these distinctions seem to apply to long-stay refugees, we have seen that the classification of people into short-stay and long-stay is of limited use. Continuity of education is more important. When they first arrive, people need immediate help with adjustment. At the same time, longer-term needs have to be considered. The description below of the state of Guatemalans newly arrived in Mexico shows how both kinds of need are interwoven, as the refugees express concern for both the present and the future:

> For the Guatemalan Indians who flee beyond the limits of their cultural homeland, the loss of regional dress, language and supportive community structures causes serious disorientation. Women, especially, who go to big cities, put on polyester pants and plastic shoes, have to learn Spanish, seem to find this a very hard experience . . . parents . . . worry that [children] will lose their identity as . . . Guatemalans. These parents also need to help their children deal with the terrors they have known - massacres, tortures, disappearances of friends and families . . .
>
> Many adult refugees also have to cope with doubt and guilt about having left their country. For refugees who were committed to their communities, as health promoters, catechists, agricultural promoters, union organisers, the impossibility of doing this kind of work in the exterior is especially frustrating. Their involvement in these activities filled a space in their lives which is not filled in exile.[2]

We can conclude, first, that education is desirable from the beginning for both short- and long-stay refugees. In designing that education, we should not assume that those who expect their stay to be short are right, and we should plan for the future. At the same time, we should not expect people to stay in the same place for long. Refugee populations may have unusually high mobility. In both south-east Asia and the Horn of Africa, this has been the case in recent years. Numbers in camps fluctuate dramatically.

Second, the priorities for education will shift over time. Some needs are immediately important for new arrivals, whether short- or long-stay. Several of these, such as learning the language of the host country, are described above. The normal educational needs of any society do not, however, change because people are in exile. Refugee children, like any others, need schooling, and the refugees themselves insist that schooling is important right from the start. The immediate priority is access to learning. As time goes on, perceptions and demands change: parents become dissatisfied with limited, second-rate schooling; they become concerned about the curriculum and its implications for development; and they want their children to have a full and useful education. Such shifts in demand imply that any plan for refugee education should have an inbuilt capacity for change and development.

*(b) Politically organised refugees*

> The doors of learning and culture shall be opened to all. Education shall be free, compulsory, universal and equal for all children. The aim of education shall be to teach the youth to love their people, and their culture, to honour human brotherhood, liberty and peace. Higher education and technical training shall be opened to all by means of allowances and scholarships awarded on the basis of merit. Adult illiteracy shall be ended by a mass state education plan. The colour bar in cultural life, sport and in education shall be abolished.[3]

Thus the South African Freedom Charter describes the purpose of education. This is the policy document used by the African National Congress to guide its educational practice. Where refugees are sheltered by a liberation movement, as is the case with many Namibians and South

Africans, they benefit from support provided by a political organisation. Such organisations place refugees in a position to develop a strong perception of their own needs, to develop their own curricula, and to express these needs to agencies and host governments. Such curricula will tend to develop the types of educational perspectives described above as 'education for *return*'.

In some cases, the reason that people fled their homes also provides motivation for designing and providing a new education. The South African example is familiar:

> In June 1976 thousands of African school children in Soweto left their classrooms to protest against the enforcement of Afrikaans – the language of the oppressor – as their medium of instruction, against the inferior education designed for them, and ultimately against the entire repressive system of apartheid which governed every aspect of their lives. Protests by school students spread throughout South Africa and were met by the guns and armoured cars of the paramilitary police and army. It is estimated that more than 1,000 school students were killed and many more were arrested. Hundreds left for political reasons to join the ANC and continue the struggle against apartheid.[4]

In Costa Rica, members of the Salvadorean teachers' trade union have provided the impetus for education. Over 6,500 Salvadorean refugees are in Costa Rica. The refugees are an unusual mix of peasants from the war-stricken east and north of El Salvador and professionals, including large numbers of teachers, from the cities. Many of the poorer refugees are illiterate and in 1981 some of the teachers, all members of the Salvadorean teachers' union, ANDES, decided to organise a literacy programme. In September 1981 they started a pilot project in Heredia, a small town near San Jose. An exiled primary teacher taught nine illiterate peasants in a church community centre. By the end of April 1982, the nine had 'graduated' and moved on to post-literacy classes. The teachers wrote a textbook and instruction manual, based on this experience. Two thousand copies were printed in March 1982, and a series of workshops was held to train instructors.

Such small-scale efforts as this are little known but deserve to be counted with the impressive achievements of South Africans, Palestinians, Namibians, Eritreans and Tigrayans in exile. Here is a description of what SWAPO of Namibia has done, to give some idea of the range of achievement:

> The educational activities of the Department of Education and Culture . . . are amongst the most thorough and important activities undertaken by and for the refugees in the camps. SWAPO recognised from its earliest days that the Bantu Education system imposed by South Africa on the people of Namibia was inadequate and inappropriate. In most cases it was (and remains) entirely irrelevant to the demands of the modern world of technology and science. SWAPO has attempted to reverse its influence through the systematic organisation of its schools, by drawing up modern and relevant curricula and by introducing a wide range of formal and non-formal courses for its students, both children and adults.
>
> Compulsory schooling for all school-age children has been introduced in all camps.
>
> All adults are also required to participate in one type of educational activity or another. These may include follow-on academic classes for those who have had primary education. For example, classes in English and mathematics and in other post-primary adult classes have been running for several years, and have now been supplemented with the courses of the Namibian Extension Unit, described below. As there are a large number of people who are unable to read and write English, literacy classes in English are conducted throughout the week. Other adult education activities such as knitting and weaving, dressmaking and sewing, nursing, carpentry, building and construction are also held . . .
>
> Recently SWAPO has begun to extend its educational services in the field of vocational training. For some years it has attempted to find opportunities for individual or groups of students to follow vocational training courses offered in other countries with a view to preparing trained manpower for an independet Namibia. Teachers, kindergarten and child-care workers, medical personnel, administrators, telecommunications technicians, air-traffic controllers have all been sent abroad for training. But their numbers are small, and the opportunities tend to be concentrated at the higher end of the educational scale. Artisan training and mechanical training have been less readily

available. Also, because of the educational and language background of occupied Namibia, few of SWAPO's cadres have had the requisite educational qualifications to take up such opportunities overseas. A new Vocational Training Centre has therefore been established in Angola to provide more, and more basic, vocational training on-the-spot . . . The United Nations has established an Institute for Namibia to provide middle level administrative and executive training for Namibians in Lusaka.

SWAPO also sends students abroad on scholarships for secondary and post-secondary training, but the numbers are small, partly because of limited opportunities, partly because of the lack of qualifications.

SWAPO recognised two major problems in its educational provision. First its personnel and material resources were seriously overstretched by trying to provide post-primary and remedial education in the camps for adults and young adults who had completed basic primary education. Secondly such people were not equipped or qualified to take up offers of secondary education in English abroad. Both problems made it even more difficult to meet its targets of training middle level personnel for the manpower requirements of independent Namibia, known as the Nationhood Programme. It therefore discussed with the Commonwealth Secretariat in 1979 alternative ways of providing such education to this category of adults. As a result the Commonwealth Secretariat involved the International Extension College in drawing up, together with itself and SWAPO, plans for a distance teaching programme which would produce self-study printed and audio-cassette materials for use in study groups in the camps. The project, known as the Namibian Extension Unit, came into operation from the end of 1981, based in Lusaka linked to UNIN.[5]

It has taken more than a decade to develop this extensive educational system. Political commitment has undoubtedly been an important factor. Relevance and unity of purpose in education become more difficult where there is no refugee political organisation, and there is an important role for community organisers in creating an alternative organisational structure where political organisation is lacking.

*(c) Cultural and linguistic heterogeneity*

Cultural and linguistic heterogeneity raise the problem of the language and the culture which will be transmitted in refugee education programmes. Tensions may result between the host government's wish to control educational activities in its own territory, and the refugees' wish to transmit to their children their own cultural heritage.

A case where controversy over language was long-drawn-out was Djibouti. In 1979 a programme of development for primary education amongst refugees was designed:

> Nothing further was done until 1981 because the government could not decide which language should be the medium of instruction. Somali, Amharic, French, Arabic and English were all discussed and the problem was of a decidedly political nature. Amharic was unacceptable to the Somalis, being for them a language of political repression, Somali was rejected on the grounds that it would create bad feeling among the Djiboutians who learn entirely in French and would represent the refugees being taught in their mother tongue, French was unacceptable to the government since it would imply that the refugees were a permanent fixture, and eventually, it was decided to teach them in English with Arabic as a second language. A second consultant came to Djibouti to see how the recommendations of the Unesco report could be implemented. The Minister of Education said that his Ministry could not sanction a programme in English and he felt that a formal primary education programme was a bad idea since it would create expectations of further opportunities which could not be met. He also thought it would lead to tension between the refugee and national populations since enrolment would probably be higher than in Djiboutian schools.[6]

In late 1982, negotiations culminated in establishing schools at last. But then further tensions became evident:

> The relationship between the Education Project and the pre-existing Koranic school with their traditional teachers was strained at the beginning and has been a source of difficulty throughout the life of the project. Those teachers with some knowledge of

> Arabic apart from the Koran were taken into the project as Arabic teachers and the others were given material assistance (mainly tents) so that they would have shade for their schools in the different parts of the camp. This had the unfortunate result that the Arabic teaching in the schools is of a very poor standard and it is not "politically" feasible to dismiss these teachers and employ better ones.[7]

Finally, however, these problems have been resolved:

> The co-existence of English and Arabic education, although not without its problems, has been largely successful, although constant diplomacy is needed to maintain good working relations between modern and traditional teachers.
>
> The project has faced many difficult moments during its life. Ethnic tensions in the camps have led to bitter confrontations which have spilled over into the schools. Extremes of heat (the temperature reaches 50° C in the summer) and violent winds rapidly destroy classroom tents. Recruitment of teachers was a problem at the beginning of the project, but now a waiting list of nearly 40 shows how desperate the urban refugees are for employment. The best teachers are the first to disappear any time that re-settlement to another country takes place and training has to recommence.[8]

Overall, reports from this and other projects indicate that the employment of refugees themselves as teachers contributes greatly to success and harmony in schools, and assists children to retain and develop their cultural identity in a foreign environment.

The use of an international language such as English, for secondary education at least, is a common and controversial demand. A knowledge of English can open the door to upper secondary education and beyond, and thus offers a chance, if a remote one, of employment that is lacking in the host country.

The controversy in Djibouti contrasts sharply with conditions in Somalia, where most refugees from Ethiopia were Somali speakers, and have accepted schools using the Somali language and curriculum. In the Sudan, Ethiopians and Eritreans have been expected to accept the Sudanese curriculum and to learn Arabic. Any Ethiopian or Eritrean education is the result of self-help work amongst the refugees. While diverse approaches to culture and language are necessary, it seems that whenever refugees participate in policy-making, they request that education should reflect the home culture.

South African and Namibian refugees have been able (as far as resources and security allow) to integrate into the indigenous educational systems in Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland and Zimbabwe. This is because English as the medium of instruction, and the structure of education (both from the previous common colonial past) is already familiar to or desired by the refugees.

Later in this chapter we shall debate the choice between vocational and academic education at post-primary levels. First, however, we shall look further at how far the host governments and refugees concur or differ, and how this can affect policy and practice.

*(d) Attitudes of host governments*

Host government attitudes will profoundly affect refugee education programmes, particularly in the extent to which refugee organisations may operate and what choices can be made in the curriculum and language used in the classroom. Ideological differences which may exist between host governments and refugee populations in certain circumstances may lead to restrictions being placed on refugees. But even where governments have been generous in welcoming refugees, their attitude has to be understood within the context of national priorities, such as increasing education provision for nationals and maintaining national cohesion, and constraints in terms of funds and infrastructure. There may be fears too amongst the local population that skill training prospects for refugees will create competition in the labour market. Finally, there is often the real danger of attacks by the country from which the refugees have fled.

It is no light matter to accept a major influx of refugees, and it is natural that, within any country that does so, there will be a complicated reaction. The analysis below of Mexican attitudes could probably be applied to many other countries.

> The treatment accorded to Central American refugees seems to reflect both the interpretation of the conflict by the people of the host country and their own domestic situation. Some sectors of government, churches, and the society at large, see the

problem as one of population explosion, inflation, lack of educational opportunity, and conclude that most of the Central Americans come to Mexico to look for work, or as one step on the way to the United States. These sectors often complain that the refugees are "robbers, they take away our work, they bring disease". There are other sectors who are convinced that the struggle in Central America is provoked by Moscow, via Havana, and more lately Managua; the refugees then are infiltrators, destabilisers, communists. Others in Mexico see the process in Central America as an indigenous, home-grown struggle against unjust structures, and these believe that Mexico should maintain its traditional policy of hospitality to victims of repression.[9]

Some host governments are unwaveringly generous to refugees, establishing schools along with other facilities which they can ill afford. Somalia, for example, offers through the Institute of In-service Teacher Training a programme 'aimed at ensuring universal primary education for refugee children living in Somalia'. In some countries, the host government's resistance to expanding education for refugees is not entirely due to lack of resources. In Swaziland, for example, South African refugees are not welcomed by the government and are thus little favoured. An exceptional case occured in Palestinian schools after the 1967 Arab/Israeli war:

> After June 1967, the Israeli occupation authorities banned the use of most of the textbooks in UNRWA/Unesco schools in the occupied territories on the grounds that they incited hatred. UNRWA referred the matter to the Director-General of Unesco and it has occupied the attention of the Unesco Executive Board at various sessions from the seventy-seventh, in November 1967, to the present.
>
> On the basis of the Executive Board decisions, the Director-General has been engaged in taking action towards resolving the textbook problem. Textbooks for the West Bank and the Gaza Strip approved by the Director-General of Unesco are subject to the further requirement of a special import permit from the Israeli authorities. As a result, on 1 April 1980, there were 28 textbooks which had been approved by Unesco but refused import permits by the occupation authorities into the West Bank and Gaza Strip.[10]

More usually, opportunities are restricted in proportion to those available to citizens. In Thailand:

> [A] major area of concern regarding educational provision is that of secondary education. At present the Royal Thai Government feels that it cannot allow refugee camps to have a full secondary education system. Such provision would mean that refugees would have access to a level of education for which the Thai people have to pay a proportion of the cost. It would be good to study some way in which provision could be made for secondary education while also benefitting the local Thai population.[11]

There is a further underlying reason why opportunities for refugees are limited in many countries. When refugees have originally been accepted as temporary visitors, a host government hesitates to provide educational opportunities which may give the impression that the refugees are accepted as long-stay visitors. Such fears may lead to poor access to education even for short-stay refugees. Even when refugees are likely to stay for several years, the same problems of access persist. In the Sudan, as in Thailand, secondary education is a problem, while in some places, refugees have inferior access to primary schooling as well. Those Eritreans who live outside the camps must compete with local people for schooling:

> The overwhelming majority of refugee children who go to school attend non-governmental schools. The 1982 government survey report of Port Sudan bears out this fact. The findings showed that at the primary level only 52 refugee students out of 23,000 attended government schools, at the junior secondary level there were three refugee students out of 2,879, and no refugee could be identified in the government high schools. Firstly, as the existing Sudanese government schools are filled to capacity, more often than not, refugee families face difficulties in securing school places for their children. Secondly, the economic situation of the refugees is such that many refugee households cannot afford to send their children to school even when the opportunity is there. With many refugee families, children have to take up full time jobs to supplement their family incomes; in some cases, children are the principal breadwinners of the families. This is more so with the female-headed households. Thirdly, as Arabic is the medium of instruction, it is not easy for a sizable section of the refugee children,

> especially those who started schooling while in their country, to attend schools that use Arabic . . . Moreover, in the case of Eritrean refugees, the overwhelming majority want to see their children follow an Eritrean curriculum. This is partly because they do not want their children to lose their identity, and partly because they think of and believe in going back to their homeland, Eritrea, as soon as possible.[12]

From the refugees' point of view, cultural continuity is an important component in the curriculum. As we have seen, this relates to the subject matter and to the language of instruction. Education also needs to lead to employment, whether present or future.

Frequently, these needs conflict with the priorities of the host government. In a poor country, resources cannot be spared to develop tailor-made education for refugees, and only a proportion of refugees can be absorbed into national schools. No government can afford to provide refugees with better opportunities than its own citizens. Such constraints are reinforced by public opinion: local people resent the idea that refugees are competing with them for jobs and depriving them of work.

This conflict forms the background to our next theme, curriculum.

## 2. Planning the curriculum

In the discussion above we found that even with short-stay refugee groups, it was not simple to answer the question, what do they need to learn? Thus, the issue of curriculum must be placed at the top of the agenda.

### *(a) Defining educational needs*

Concurrent with the provision of emergency 'education for survival' programmes should go a rapid process of gathering data for the planning of longer-term programmes. An assessment is needed of:

- numbers and sexes;
- educational levels;
- qualified personnel and other resources possessed by the refugee group;
- the refugees' own educational goals.

Though this assessment may be made by outside consultants with experience of refugee education programmes, it is important that, as far as the constraints of the situation allow, the programmes express the felt needs of the refugees themselves and are not externally imposed. Refugees are best placed to define their own needs and where there is a liberation movement it should be involved in drawing up plans. External specialists may also be important in mediating the refugees' needs to the host government and to aid agencies.

In curriculum design, any latent conflict of interest between host and refugee community over subject matter, language and even the aims of education is most likely to become evident. The resolution is not easy. The Eritrean Relief Association, for example, states its case as follows:

> It is obvious that refugee children need to have access to education. What is less easy to define is the kind of curriculum to follow, its objectives and content. The curriculum can aim: (1) to prepare the student for his/her eventual return to his/her homeland; (2) to help the student to be self-sufficient during his/her stay as a refugee in the host country; and (3) to help the student to integrate in his/her adopted home country. Therefore, the curriculum's aims depend to a very large degree on whether or not the refugees would like to go back to the country of origin when the conditions that forced them to leave are removed. If, as is the case of the Eritrean refugees, their aspiration is to return, the objectives and content of education that is given to refugees should, in addition to enabling the student to fully realise his/her potentialities and develop his/her creative capability, [meet the following conditions]:
>
> 1. The materials or subjects taught to refugee children must have relevance to the socioeconomic reality in their homeland;
>
> and
>
> 2. The kind of education given to refugee children should enable them to know the history of their people and country, to maintain their identity, to know their culture, to

realise their political aspirations and to prepare them to return to their homelands and serve their people and country.

We believe that the contents and objectives of education for refugees who want to go back to their country of origin should be as stated above for the simple reasons that the aspiration of such refugees is to return to their homeland once the root cause for their plight and suffering is resolved and that the future of such refugee children lies in returning to their homeland. We also believe that in the case of Eritrean refugees in the Sudan the curriculum developed and taught in Eritrea is the most suitable for realising the above aims.

To say that the kind of education given to refugees has to prepare them for the eventual return to their homeland, however, should not be misconstrued to mean that they have to be ignorant of the host country and their surroundings. On the contrary, the education they receive should enable them to interact with the people of the host country and to make a living during their sojourn there.[13]

This well articulated position is one which is inevitably in opposition to the Sudanese government's policy of assimilating refugees into its own schools.

In most cases, the final educational programme will be the negotiated outcome of potentially divergent interests:

- the refugees' needs and priorities;
- the interests of host governments in decisions about curricula as they affect national development and cohesion, as well as security;
- the decisions about priorities made by external NGOs and funding agencies, according to their own terms of reference and judgements;
- the advice of external specialists, where this is called for.

There will be a need to negotiate over whether education is to be for integration or for return; whether refugees will follow host country curricula or will have their own; whether teaching will be in the mother tongue or some other language.

Once education is established, a further complication can arise as needs change over time. Thailand is a case in point:

Education activities in refugee camps in Thailand were initiated and evolving according to refugees' needs and motivation. A large number of hill tribes and Cambodian refugees appear to regard asylum in Thailand as a temporary one and hope to return home some day. The Vietnamese and the lowland Laotians, on the other hand, express no desire to return home. They all want to resettle abroad.

Education programmes, therefore, have been designed to meet all the three basic durable solutions: voluntary repatriation, local resettlement and third country resettlement.

Initially, when refugees first arrived in Thailand, education activities were organised by the refugees themselves. The former teachers and educated persons organised classes to teach children with basic skills in their respective national languages. Foreign languages were later added by refugees themselves as resettlement opportunity arose.

In 1977, it became more difficult to resettle refugees abroad. A large number of refugees were left in camps, causing fear among Thai officials that the refugees might have to stay in Thailand for a long time. The Thai Government therefore introduced the Thai education programme to refugees. The programme includes primary education for school age children, adult literacy and vocational training. It was hoped that the Thai programme will help the refugees integrate into Thai society easily when and if they have to resettle in Thailand.

In 1979, when the new wave of Cambodian refugees reached Thai camps, new refugees requested assistance to help them organise a more systematic, large-scale Cambodian education programme. The Khmer educators who survived the Khmer Rouge massacre were anxious to initiate this programme because the Khmer society as a whole was denied the right to basic education throughout the three year period of the Khmer Rouge's anti-intellectual "revolution". Education was then regarded as a crime and

those with education as criminals, punishable by death.

> The Khmer refugees were given the freedom to organise and implement their own programme while other agencies provided material and technical support as needed. The immediate tasks included recruitment of teachers, training of teachers, building classrooms, and organising the operational system. The long term task was the curriculum development. Experienced teachers and writers were recruited to develop textbooks for grades 1–5 in all major subjects. A printing system was also established to reproduce reading materials for camp use. The programmes offered include a variety of courses, ranging from primary education, adult literacy, skill training, paramedics training, social work training, women and early childhood education, arts and crafts, integrated farming, appropriate technologies, etc. The Khmer programme proved to be the most successful when compared to all refugee camps. At one point in time, over half of the refugee population attended classes. Many of them were poor peasants who never had access to education before.
> The Khmer model was later replicated in Lao and hill tribe camps in 1981 and again, has proved to be greatly welcomed by the refugees in these camps. The main factors why the model has been so well received by refugees was because it allows the refugees themselves to initiate and manage the programme. This participation has built up self confidence and pride among the refugees.
>
> At a later stage, the formal foreign language and cultural orientation programme operated by foreign voluntary agencies was also implemented to equip those refugees who had been selected for third country resettlement with language skills and cultural understanding. These include American, French and Japanese programmes.[14]

So, dialogue concerning the curriculum remains important over the years. Providers need to continue to listen to refugees' descriptions of their needs.

While the first step in defining needs is to listen to the refugees, it is sometimes necessary to be more interventionist. The case of those who fled Afghanistan to Pakistan provides an example:

> Prior to the communist take-over, the schools and other educational institutions such as universities were becoming the centres of social and cultural expression for all classes and all levels of our society. After the communist take-over, schools and other centres of higher education were used for propagating communist and atheist ideologies among our people. Bearing in mind the fact that most of the leadership of the Afghan communists were school teachers, ordinary Afghans equated the schools with communism. When the first waves of anti-communist resistance started, the communists (mostly in the rural areas) used the schools as the police posts for torturing and interrogation of suspected resistance members. After the beginning of armed resistance in mass level in October 1978, the schools became the first targets for attacks on the communist power centres. This is why school buildings have suffered so much in the period of early resistance.[15]

Against such a background, it was a major task to persuade refugee parents to send their children to school. Added to this was the traditional attitude that school is unnecessary for girls. Providers had to persuade parents that their children needed education. In another case, that of Hmong women in Thailand, outsiders decided to introduce literacy classes to improve health:

> . . . there is regular eduation conducted by the public health services. Such efforts have proved very difficult and often wholly ineffective. For the Hmong, sickness and disease are tied up with the spirit world. Hence, talking about germs, protein, or vitamin does not lead to the results that health experts would like to see. Added to this is the fact that many Hmong women have never been to school and cannot read or write their mother tongue or any other language. Considering these two factors Southeast Asian Outreach decided to begin . . . [a] project designed to link the teaching of literacy with simple nutrition and health education, concentrating on everyday hygiene, personal cleanliness, food hygiene, healthy diet and subjects particularly related to the needs of women.[16]

The conditions of exile, particularly when people live in camps, create circumstances where education can take place which would have been more difficult at home. This applies particularly to non-formal adult education. Experienced adult educators, in consultation with refugees

themselves, may be able to suggest educational initiatives which correspond to unspoken needs in the community.

*(b) Formal or non-formal education?*

As the nature of refugee populations changes, so do their educational needs. In recent years, the proportion of adult refugees with little or no formal education has grown dramatically. But the provision of basic and non-formal education programmes for adults, to help them cope with their immediate and pressing problems, has remained minimal. There is, inevitably, a problem of apportioning resources equitably between school-based and alternative education programmes. It remains the case that a high proportion of most refugee populations is children, and children need schools. Resources cannot be removed from schools; indeed they should be increased, for, as this report has amply shown, they are far from adequate. The need for resources for non-formal programmes is, however, equally pressing, though at present such programmes seem to attract little attention and little money. The only answer would seem to be increased resources and a carefully planned integrated use of facilities wherever possible.

There are also, however, the problems of motivation and certification. While the school-based programmes will continue to prepare students for traditional examinations, the non-formal programmes should not be examination-based and would relate more closely to the life lived by the refugees. But many refugees may be unwilling to enter an education programme unless there is some formal certification at the end which will improve their employment prospects. So it is often difficult to attract adult refugees into non-formal programmes which are not seen to improve their employment prospects or earning power. The literacy project for Hmong women again sets the scene.

> Running this project was at times difficult and frustrating. On the one hand it is very easy to identify needs from the point of view of those with formal education. It is more difficult to meet those needs effectively. The women we were trying to reach were very busy. They had their families to bring up, looked after their small gardens or did embroidery to sell in the market, as well as a variety of other time consuming tasks. They often said that they didn't have time to come to the classes. It was often the attitude of the men that the women didn't need to learn anyway.[17]

While the difficulties encountered in this project are familiar, at the same time most readers will probably feel the work was worth doing. But, for funding agencies, the outcomes of much adult education, like this project, are far less glamorous than the primary-school graduation ceremonies. So what happens when projects such as this are weighed against formal schooling in an attempt to share resources fairly?

The case for formal education for refugees is easily made. The huge numbers of children create an immediate and urgent problem for the design of refugee education. Right from the beginning, some facilities, even if they are informal and only recreational, are necessary to dissipate the trauma of exile and also to enable the mothers, many of whom are heads of households, to cope with adjustment. Shortly thereafter, the provision of primary-school places in huge numbers and of teachers becomes urgent. These programmes may need planned provision of resources for up to ten years and a subsequent link with secondary school programmes. The concern expressed by adult refugees for the long-term prospects of their children, and the need for adequate education to prepare for that future, has been described in the previous section.

The case for non-formal education is also strong, but needs further elaboration. One of the groups which has particular needs is refugee women. Thus, for adults, educational planning ought to take account of the special needs and problems of women. However, there has been very little effective experience or innovation. Few programmes exist other than homecraft training.

And yet, in almost every refugee community, women predominate. It is women who must lead the community now, even though their past experience has left them unprepared. The case for compensatory education for women is incontrovertible, but if such initiatives exist, they are hiding themselves away.

Education for women must not only help them to escape their past as second-class citizens; it must also counteract the danger of reverting to a submissive role on the return home. To be successful, education should be accompanied by opportunities for enhanced status: women should have a fair share of senior positions within the refugee community.



while rural people are in camps in the south and east. Most are very poor, with limited employment prospects. Those that have work usually have low pay.

Education for children is provided by the UNHCR and Commissioner for Refugees, or by private organisations. In urban areas, refugee children may attend government schools but only a tiny proportion are able to gain admission, particularly at secondary level.

The Eritrean Relief Association (ERA) started opening its own schools in 1980. It now has seven schools in major cities and camps, with over 1,500 children studying up to fifth grade. The programme is expensive, but so far ERA has received little financial support. ERA must usually provide children with books and materials, as parents cannot afford them.

As the refugee population is highly mobile, the drop-out rate is quite high. This applies to children and teachers: the latter often qualify for resettlement.

ERA believes that Eritrean children should study the curriculum developed and taught in Eritrea, as they hope to return. After children have completed middle school, they need vocational or technical training to help gain employment.

**Case study 14**

*Academic repression in the third world*
Enrique Oteiza
(Paper first presented at General Assembly of International Social Science Council, Unesco, Paris, 1977.)

Conflict between government and academics, particularly social scientists in the third world, is especially pronounced in Latin America, although it exists too in some Asian and African countries. Such repression prevents the emergence and circulation of scientific knowledge. The struggle must continue to recognise human rights and preserve academic freedom. Care should be taken to relocate academic refugees in their own regions where possible, and refugee scholarship programmes should help train people for effective academic or professional work in their own country or region. Senior academic refugees should be eligible for research grants. A number of further suggestions are made to improve regional and international collaboration for the benefit of academic refugees.

**Case study 15**

*REST's educational activities*
Solomon Inquai

The Relief Society of Tigray (REST) was established in 1978 to do relief and rehabilitation work in Tigray and amongst displaced Tigreans.

In Tigray REST supports 62 schools with 27,000 pupils, largely in areas where there were no schools before the struggle began. In addition, REST conducts an adult literacy campaign: most participants are women. Three orphanages cater for nearly 3,000 children.

In the Sudan, REST aims to help the Sudanese government in its efforts. It has two orphanages, which provide education, and it runs literacy and evening classes in the camps and towns. After the recent influx of drought victims, REST hired over 60 Tigreans as teachers for the new arrivals.

REST has produced school textbooks in Tigrinya for the first six grades. It also seeks supplies of stationery, and gives priority to teacher training.

In Eastern Sudan and in Tigray, REST runs vocational training schools, and also supports an agriculture training school, one for paramedics and one for women. There are also some nonformal education activities.

**Case study 16**

*The UNRWA/Unesco programme of school education and in-service teacher training*
Knud Mortensen
(Summary of a comprehensive report entitled *The UNRWA/Unesco Experience in Refugee Education* by Knud Mortensen and K. D. Wagner, Institute of Education, University of Copenhagen, 1980.)

Since 1950 the United Nations Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) has been responsible for providing relief to Palestinian refugees, and co-operates with Unesco in the field of education.

How can women progress this far, when they start from a disadvantaged position? Surely they need special help? Such help needs to be sensitively planned. For example, with Hmong women refugees in Thailand male teachers inhibited active participation. The women had a tendency simply to defer to the teacher.

When making plans for refugee education, and for more formal education, it must be recognised that the composition of a refugee community is unnatural and quite different from a normal urban or rural community. Thus women and school-age children make up the majority of the population. Increasingly, also, refugees are predominantly drawn from rural peasant societies. Whole families and even villages, without many of the able-bodied men, are on the move. There is probably an unusually high proportion of physically disabled people, as a result of war and hardship. The elderly, although they may be few, lack the normal support of a home environment.

There are usually fewer people with formal qualifications, although many individuals may discover that they have skills useful to others. In such circumstances, and with the additional fact that people are unwillingly in an alien environment, the most vulnerable people inevitably need special help. Finally, there is much greater poverty in these communities.

> The poor socioeconomic conditions of the refugees make it very difficult for students, many of whom work, to follow their studies diligently. It is very difficult for parents to provide their children with the necessary educational materials. In many instances, especially in the settlement camps, ERA has to provide students with supplies and books. Under such circumstances, it is difficult for a student to follow his/her studies regularly and to give it the attention it deserves.[18]

All of these factors are relevant to the planning of a non-formal educational scheme, relevant to the actual needs of the refugee community, as well as the need to improve in the long term the skills available to it.

*(c) Academic or vocational training?*

Greater emphasis is currently placed on vocational than on academic training in the education programmes of agencies such as UNHCR. The intention is to provide some form of saleable and useful skill training. However, many refugees recognise the need for both vocational training and academic certificates in order to achieve this.

It is indeed important to include a vocational component alongside an academic one in any schooling. Most educators everywhere recognise this, although there is disagreement on the stage at which vocational elements should be introduced and whether such elements should be optional or compulsory for all pupils.

Some agencies concerned with refugee education have diverged from the ideas of mainstream educators and tend towards restricting post-primary opportunities to vocational training. While an emphasis on training for employment is desirable, it can go too far: it can deny access to academic education, which refugees themselves see as desirable, as we shall see; and it can channel more refugees towards a local job market which cannot absorb them. Moreover, it is extremely difficult to plan vocational training on the scale needed, in the light of actual work opportunities, and it is sometimes undesirable to encourage increased competition between refugees and local people for such jobs as exist.

Before proceeding any further, let us therefore rephrase our heading: how can academic education and vocational training be combined to complement each other? We will start our discussion with the refugees.

Take, for example, Thailand:

> For the past seven years, the primary education system has produced a large number of primary school graduates. Having no gainful employment to do, the majority of these graduates have expressed strong needs for secondary education. However, progress in this regard has been very slow because of many reasons including the lack of qualified teachers, lack of materials, and in some camps, the lack of policy support by the Thai Government which does not want to see higher education as a factor keeping the refugees in the camps for a long period of time.[19]

While many refugees have made similar comments, one solution could be to direct primary-school pupils towards vocational or technical subjects in the first place, so that the importance of

academic achievement as a passport to work is reduced. In Djibouti, for example:

> The school has now gone far beyond the provision of basic literacy and numeracy and has become a positive vehicle for upward mobility to the Vocational Training Centre and beyond, for some students. Competition for these places is intense. For those who are left, the social problems foreseen by the Minister of Education in 1981 are beginning to make themselves felt. In this context, it must be questioned whether the education programme in the camp is not serving simply to raise expectations and the level of frustration when these are not fulfilled. Extreme unwillingness on the part of the refugees to return to Ethiopia under the present natural and political circumstances make the situation an intractable one and the ultimate solution will lie with the government of Djibouti in allowing them to integrate.
>
> In view of this, it may be time to re-examine the content of the education programme. The school infrastructure could just as easily be used for teaching a variety of artisanal skills, such as carpentry, leatherwork, tailoring etc. as for teaching the formal programme which is under way, and such skills could be taught to nationals at the same time thus easing the tensions between the two communities, and persuading the government that refugee programmes can be of positive benefit to the country.[20]

It is more usual, however, to begin vocational training after primary school. In the ANC curriculum for the Solomon Mahlangu Freedom College, for example, practical work encourages a positive attitude to manual work:

> To bridge the gap between mental and manual labour the School has established a Labour Programme which is presently involved in landscaping and maintenance work. Both teachers and students participate in this programme which is on the timetable. The students bring in the annual harvest of maize, sorghum, beans and sunflowers.[21]

For Namibians, a Vocational Training Centre in Angola is providing training for post-primary students related to manpower needs in independent Namibia:

> The training curricula of the Centre have been planned to be carried out in a period of two years. The training is practically oriented with practical training taking up to 70% of the timetable towards the end of the second year.
>
> The curricula cover six trades, namely, automechanical and diesel engine, bricklaying and concrete works, carpentry and joinery, electrical installations and repair, machineshop and fitting and plumbing and pipe-fitting. They have been designed to meet international standard classifications of occupations and incorporate the ILO-developed "Modules of Employable Skills" wherever found practical.[22]

A problem, when training is acquired for the distant future, lies in obtaining adequate hands-on experience:

> At present no funds have been made available to enable trainees to receive adequate practice in the field either before or after their graduation. The Centre is however, expecting the Board to approve some funds to enable trainees to be seconded or go for about 3-months field practice in industrial workshops in different countries before they graduate.
>
> If however, funds are not available for such a scheme, the students will be returned to the Department of Education and Culture. The Department may then decide on how many of the graduates it would send for further studies, etc. The rest would simply return to the Centres as reinforcement in their fields of qualification.[23]

The general opinion amongst refugees seems to be that, while adults can be trained for the present, the young should be trained for the future.

Academic or general education should not be curtailed in favour of vocational. ERA states the case clearly:

> In the Sudan, refugees are not a transient phenomenon; they are to stay in Sudan for some time to come. In the light of this fact, there is a need to help the refugees to be self-sufficient. This objective would necessitate the provision of training to refugees that would help them to acquire new skills and/or upgrade existing skills. At the same time,

> there is a need to improve and expand academic education at all levels, especially at the intermediate and secondary level. The present educational policy for refugees seems to put more emphasis on non-formal education to the neglect of formal education. More and more emphasis is being given to the provision of vocational training of short duration, both for adults and children. We believe the view that "basic technical skills relevant to the camp situation" [should] be provided to the refugees irrespective of the nature of the group of people to be erroneous. Vocational training to refugee children under the age of fifteen should be given only *after* they have completed the middle school. Moreover, the training should be of such content and duration that it can equip the student with the necessary theoretical and practical knowledge, make him/her technically competent. Vocational training of short duration should be given only to adults and to fifteen-year-olds and above who would like to upgrade their skills and/or acquire new skills.[24]

Furthermore, let us note that if one argument for vocational training is that the skills acquired are saleable, we must be sure that job opportunities really exist. Research into the needs of a community should take place before establishing vocational or technical programmes. In some circumstances, and for some individuals, academic skills will be more saleable than technical ones. Both kinds of education have their place.

Finally, one kind of vocational training, that of teachers, needs special attention.

Refugees need teachers drawn from amongst themselves. But here lies a problem. As elsewhere:

> Refugees in the Sudan have a mobile and unstable life, some move within Sudan and others leave to go to other countries, especially to the Middle East, Western Europe and North America. Because of the unstable life of refugees, the number of dropouts and those who discontinue their education is not insignificant.[25]

Refugees have high mobility, and very often it is the teachers who move on, to further studies, perhaps. Several project organisers have mentioned this mobility, and have come to accept that new teachers must always be in training to replace those who leave. Long-term teacher training programmes emerge as a prerequisite for the priority job of maintaining primary schools. This message is clearly delivered from Thailand:

> The number of qualified and experienced teachers has been continuously decreasing because they tend to be the first to get resettled abroad. There are needs for training new teachers all the time. It is also becoming more difficult to find experienced trainers.[26]

## Conclusion

This chapter has looked at influences on education and attempted to juxtapose the views of refugees, host governments and assisting agencies. While any attempts to generalise are tentative, it seems true that education is more satisfactory when refugees take part in its planning and provision. We have seen, too, several potential points of dissension between refugees and others, and would suggest that a careful analysis of each situation is necessary to minimise conflict. Finally, a now familiar theme emerged early in the chapter and remained consistently in the limelight: in the eyes of refugees, education for children and adults is an important priority, from the time exile begins.

## Notes

1. Case study 10, p.2.
2. Case study 9, p.6.
3. Case study 11, p.8.
4. Case study 11, p.1.
5. Case study 6, pp.5-6.
6. Case study 2, p.3.
7. Case study 2, p.4.
8. Case study 2, p.5.
9. Case study 9, pp.2-3.
10. Hussein Husnu Feridun, 'UNRWA and Unesco: a thirty-year partnership', *Unesco Courier*, June 1980, p.31.
11. Case study 4, p.7.
12. Case study 13, p.5.
13. Case study 13, p.7.

14. Case study 8, pp.3-4.
15. Case study 10, p.3.
16. Case study 4, pp.4-5.
17. Case study 4, p.6.
18. Case study 13, p.6.
19. Case study 8, pp.4-5.
20. Case study 2, p.6.
21. Case study 11, p.3.
22. Case study 3, p.6.
23. Case study 3, p.8.
24. Case study 13, p.8.
25. Case study 13, p.6.
26. Case study 8, p.4.

CHAPTER 4

# *Persistent Problems and Strategies for the Future*

The number of refugees in the world continues to grow. So do their educational requirements. There has been, during the last few years, a growing recognition by host governments and international agencies of the importance of education for refugees and therefore of the need for funds to make it available. The percentage of UNHCR's budget allocated to education has been rising in spite of the decrease in its overall budget. There are even cases where funds are available for refugee education but are not used, because no properly presented project proposals are forthcoming. Nevertheless there is still overall a lack of funds for educational projects, and it remains a difficult and often painfully slow process to raise funds for them. There are no examples where education has been provided to refugees in the early stages of their exile, along with emergency relief services, except where refugees themselves have mobilised what limited resources they have to set up schools and literacy classes. This clearly indicates that there is still a problem concerning the recognition of education as a priority by international agencies and host governments in planning aid to refugees, especially at the emergency stage. This final chapter considers how to change this.

## 1. Obstacles to effective refugee education programmes

Apart from the lack of funds, there seem to be three major obstacles to the rapid establishment of education services. First is the reluctance, in the early stages of a refugee crisis, to accept that it might become a long-term problem, an understandable reluctance shared by host governments, international agencies and the refugees themselves. For most host government and international relief officials, education implies schools and permanent institutions and therefore a long-term investment and a recognition of long-term exile. Such officials, on their own, are not and cannot be expected to be aware of the possibility and experience of emergency educational projects which can be started without permanent institutions and adapted into long-term programmes only if the necessity arises. There is, however, a growing experience in refugee education at many different levels, in vastly differing conditions, and using different approaches.

A second problem is that no formal international machinery exists to make the fruits of that experience available to new crises as they occur. In Somalia the IITT teacher-training programme was able to come into operation quickly because it was planned by people with experience of the UNRWA/Unesco programme for Palestinians. But this was the result of chance individual initiative, not of the systematic storage and exchange of information, experience and where necessary personnel, which is possible and would in most crises be beneficial.

The third problem is the inevitable result of the lack of relevant educational experience on the part of relief officials and the difficulty in getting access to reports of such experience. Most educational provision, when eventually it starts, is largely unco-ordinated and often unplanned. Many different kinds of agencies are involved, often in response to expressions of need from individuals or small groups. There is, moreover, very little machinery for consultation and co-operation both nationally and internationally between the various interested parties: refugee organisations, host governments, UNHCR, international non-governmental organisations and national and international educational agencies. In such circumstances, it is inevitable that conflicts of interest and tensions occur between them, which delay and hinder the provision of adequate educational services to the refugees themselves.

## 2. Strategies for improving international assistance

These problems and most of the reported experience suggest that the existing pattern of providing for the educational needs of refugees is inadequate. There is room for improvement and for new initiatives to bring about such improvement. Any new initiatives should have four major objectives:

- to increase and improve the co-ordination of educational services to refugees;
- to ensure real consultation with and involvement of representatives of refugee communities in

all discussions about refugee education services between host governments, international governmental agencies, including UNHCR, and non-government agencies;

- to focus greater national and international attention on the need for education among refugees as a priority and its importance from the very beginning of a refugee crisis; and, through such additional attention, to provide increased resources for such services;
- to facilitate the international exchange of information, experience and expertise related to education for refugees among all interested parties.

Any such development must take into account present responsibilities and activities in the field of education. It is worth noting some of these. The main intergovernmental organisation is UNHCR. Despite the many criticisms and suspicions it attracts as the major international agency concerned with refugees, there is no doubt that UNHCR has overwhelming status and credibility among refugee host countries and among donor governments. Without sufficient resources, which UNHCR is in the strongest position to obtain at the level required, all else will fail. Through its assistance activities, it supports refugee educational and scholarship programmes. These are by no means comprehensive and are particularly vulnerable, given UNHCR's current financial predicament and the lack of secure funding for its general programme. In Africa the Organisation of African Unity (OAU), through its consultative meetings on refugees in Africa in recent years, has confirmed a commitment to meeting the educational needs of refugees. Host governments in the third world, in spite of their limited resources, are probably the major providers of primary and, to a lesser extent, secondary education. As far as possible this is on the same, usually competitive, basis as for their own children. In addition to a few specialised educational bodies, a large number of non-specialist voluntary agencies attempt to supplement the educational work of UNHCR and host governments, as one component of their refugee relief and development programmes. In some countries host governments, in others UNHCR, attempt to co-ordinate such programmes. In many countries, no such co-ordination exists. The most interesting example of an attempt at international co-ordination is the Standing Committee on the Education and Training of Refugees in Africa. This is a loose group chaired by the OAU and serviced by the WUS (International). It has no secretariat of its own. It has attempted to produce some statistics and is also publishing a handbook on educational opportunities for African refugees at the post-secondary level within Africa. It meets about once a year. There is a move within this body to obtain finance for personnel (one or possibly two people) in order that more research can be done on educational provision, so that those who provide education know the context in which they are doing so. As far as Africa is concerned, there is general consensus, as expressed at the two Arusha conferences, on the importance of providing education for refugees. There is virtually no monitoring of what is happening, or attempts to find the best ways of following up the Arusha conferences.

It is likely that any new initiative, therefore, would have to have an impact at three levels to achieve the purposes listed above. First, it would have to result in a professional resource and information service concentrating on refugee education and available to all parties concerned. Second, it would have to work towards improved national co-operation between agencies working in any one country on the provision of education for refugees in that country. Third, it would need to operate internationally, both as a pressure group to ensure the international recognition of the priority of education and as a facilitator in raising funds, providing services, and acting as a channel of international co-ordination. These three levels of new initiative are examined separately.

*(a) A professional refugee education resource and information service*

Such a service would be concerned primarily with the rapid mobilisation of educational resources and expertise to meet new refugee crises and to facilitate the development and expansion of educational programmes in existing refugee communities. It would have five main functions:

- to collect and share information about refugee education projects, their successes, their problems and their modes of operation;
- to provide technical and professional advice and support on planning and implementing new refugee education programmes;
- to collect and supply information about educational resources, including personnel, available to refugee education programmes;
- to collect and exchange information about projects to potential funders, and about potential

funders to project planners and implementers;

- to set up emergency educational planning machinery and to facilitate the implementation of any plans which might emerge in new refugee crises.

No such service exists at present. It is possible for one or more of the existing agencies specially concerned with the education of refugees to develop these functions either individually or in co-operation. Similarly, it is in theory possible for them to be grafted on to an agency concerned with the co-ordination of refugee services but not specialising in education. Or thirdly, they could become the functions of a new body created for the purpose. In the light of the existing experience in this field of a few agencies professionally concerned with the education of refugees, it would seem sensible to harness that experience in a new, purpose-designed, unit which was attached to an existing agency, or jointly sponsored by several such agencies.

*(b) National refugee education co-ordinating and advisory councils*

The need for such bodies is highlighted by several reports of the existence in many countries of unplanned and unco-ordinated education projects, some run by host governments, some by refugees themselves, some by international agencies. These sometimes compete for resources and personnel, often overlap with each other, and occasionally operate conflicting programmes. The purposes of co-ordinating bodies would be threehold:

- to facilitate the provision of comprehensive services;
- to focus attention on the priority of education and to highlight unfilled needs;
- to ensure the co-ordination of the efforts of all concerned.

Such councils would need to bring together representatives of the government departments responsible for refugee services, of the refugees themselves, of national educational bodies and of international agencies working with refugees in that country.

*(c) International refugee education advisory and co-ordination services*

Much of what has been reported earlier shows there is general recognition of the need for improved, quicker and better co-ordinated international assistance to refugee education programmes. Two main emphases in such improved services seem to emerge: on the one hand there is the need to co-ordinate existing services and the work of government, non-government and refugee-based agencies, in order to improve their effectiveness; on the other hand is the need to focus international attention, especially that of funding agencies, on the priority of education in refugee relief work and on the urgency of providing it at the very outset of any refugee crisis. These are in no way contradictory emphases, though they can lead to somewhat divergent views of what needs to be done.

For the first emphasis, that of co-ordinating existing services, a system of networking and co-ordination needs to be devised. The purpose of a network would be to put those involved with refugee education in contact with each other. It would serve to facilitate information exchange. The co-ordination function would be to assist with devising response mechanisms in particular situations, to ensure other experiences were utilised and to bring people together as necessary to act as a pressure group. For the second emphasis, focussing international attention on refugee education, means must be found to bring maximum pressure on both host and donor governments, on intergovernmental organisations and on funding bodies to provide adequate resources quickly to allow emergency and large scale educational programmes to be launched without delay. Two proposals were put forward at the Dartington Workshop and are elaborated below. They overlap to a large degree, but reflect these two emphases.

- *An International Standing Committee on the Education of Refugees*

  This would have, as its model, the Standing Committee on the Education and Training of Refugees in Africa, whose members include representatives of voluntary agencies involved with the education of refugees in Africa, such as the World University Service, the Africa Educational Trust, the Lutheran World Federation and the World Council of Churches. These meet together with UNHCR education officials and representatives of host governments. An International Standing Comittee on the Education of Refugees would consist of representatives of concerned voluntary agencies working in different parts of the world, together with intergovernmental agencies involved in refugee education, such as UNHCR, UNRWA, OAU and Unesco. It would be essential to have representatives of the worldwide refugee

community and of third world host governments, though it is not easy to decide how such representatives would be chosen. It would also require a small secretariat within an already existing organisation, such as an international non-governmental organisation. It would have the job of providing basic information. This would include compiling statistics for the member agencies, publicising the bibliographies and articles on refugee education already available, monitoring the funding situation overall and monitoring the provision of education in various areas of high refugee concentration. It would provide the basis for undertaking useful and specific projects such as the handbook on refugee education referred to above. One such project could be to follow up the effect of refugee education on returnees. The organisation would have loose terms of reference, which would be adequate as it would not have a powerful and high-profile interventionist role. The co-ordination would be achieved through a committee structure. Meetings would have to take place in different parts of the world to allow the participation of refugees and host governments.

- *An International Advisory Council on the Education of Refugees*

Such a body would have, as its prime purposes, to draw the attention of world opinion and of international funding agencies to the continuing priority of educational provision for refugees and, in particular, to ensure that that priority is recognised immediately in any new refugee crisis. Its intention thereby would be to ensure ready access to adequate financial resources for projects and agencies providing all kinds of approved educational opportunities to refugees. It would consist of a small group of people of internationally recognised stature, publicly committed to the promotion of refugee education, representing, possibly indirectly, the worldwide refugee community, third world host governments and educationists, international agencies and funding bodies and concerned non-government organisations. It would also require a small secretariat, but would draw for any permanent services on existing agencies and experience wherever possible. It would seek to maintain within such agencies the professional resource and information services referred to above and would also promote inter-agency co-ordination and co-operation through a network of informal committees.

## 3. The way forward

There was general, though not unanimous, agreement at the Dartington Workshop that some new international initiative is needed in order to increase and improve educational opportunities for refugees. These two proposals both seek to create such an initiative, though they employ somewhat different approaches. It is vital now that action be taken to enable such improvements in provision to be made. Any action must take a form which is acceptable to most of the parties concerned with refugee education. But without it educational provision for refugees will remain haphazard and of low priority, and the international community will continue to fail the people of that 'country without a country' which is today's refugee population.

# *Case Studies of Refugee Education*

A number of case studies, prepared by participants in the workshop, are available on request form IEC/WUS. Abstracts of these appear below.

**Case study 1**

*Adult education in refugee camps on the Thai/Kampuchean border*
Monica McIlvaney

Between 1975 and 1980 over 50,000 Khmer refugees entered Thailand, where asylum was strictly temporary. Many Khmers were accommodated in the Khao I Dang centre, which opened in 1979. By May 1980 it contained over 130,000 inhabitants, and by December 1980 less than 57,000.

The case study describes a functional education programme for female single parents in Khao I Dang which started in 1980. The overall objective was to improve the quality of life for the target group. The project started with 17 Khmer staff, including four pre-school teachers to supervise the children of the participants, about 300 participants, and one expatriate field worker. A one-week staff training programme was followed by six months of classes in literacy, numeracy and handicrafts for five days a week. The teachers produced their own teaching materials. For the second six months, the remaining 54 students set up income-generating co-operatives, and met twice a week for discussions and to continue their education.

The programme was very popular. Camp mobility militated against continuity, but meant that more people became involved in the programme's development. The scarcity of educational materials was a disadvantage, but it led to the local development of materials. Within the camp, adult education activities were unco-ordinated, and there was a risk of duplication of effort. Mobility also meant it was difficult to sustain community involvement. The introduction of community-based teachers encouraged some form of accountability, but other structures are also needed in such a highly mobile situation.

**Case study 2**

*Djibouti primary education project*
Olivia Graham

Djibouti's refugees are mainly of Somali and Oromo ethnic origin, coming from Ethiopia. Most have been repatriated, with an estimated 7,000 remaining. Since 1979, attempts were made to set up primary schools, but delays ensued over language policy. It was finally decided to use English with Arabic as a second language. In 1983 schools opened. By this time, the atmosphere in the camps was unsettled with repatriation under way, and the teachers in the new schools had to face up to the resentment of Koranic school teachers. The project introduced English and maths classes, supported the Koranic schools, and sports, gardening and health education. It operated in two camps.

Now only one school remains open, with 1,200 students and 30 teachers. The co-existence of English and Arabic education has been largely successful. Ethnic tensions, hot and windy weather and teacher shortages have all been problems, although today nearly 40 educated urban refugees are waiting for jobs as teachers.

Other educational activities include evening classes for adults in English, with 350 students; a vocational training centre with an annual intake of 120, of whom 30% are Djiboutian; and a Protestant and Catholic Church school for Djiboutians, each of which offers places to a handful of refugees.

The future of the school is unclear. Djibouti has 70% unemployment and does not want the refugees to stay. The education programme, however, has become a vehicle for upward mobility. Perhaps it is now serving simply to raise expectations and the level of frustration when these are not fulfilled. It may be time to reconsider the education programme, include more skills training in the curriculum, and ensure that such skills are taught to Djiboutian nationals, as well to reassure the government that refugee programmes can benefit the whole country.

**Case study 3**

*United Nations Vocational Training Centre for Namibia, Sumbe, People's Republic of Angola*
I. Ankama, Principal

This project, as part of the Nationhood Programme for Namibia, is co-ordinated by the United Nations Commissioner for Namibia on behalf of the United Nations Council for Namibia, and implemented by the International Labour Organisation in collaboration with SWAPO of Namibia. The Centre, on land donated in 1979 by the government of the People's Republic of Angola, aims to create a pool of skilled manpower for Namibia. It has a governing board which meets twice a year, and the Principal, assisted by a management committee, is responsible for day-to-day direction. The staff include Namibian, regional and international personnel. Students are Namibians, and should have completed primary education.

Most trainees on entry have difficulty with communication skills and mathematics. A three-month intensive basic education programme is now being introduced prior to trade training. The first two intakes included a heavy concentration of women.

Project activities so far have centred round construction, where there have been problems with contractors, and training in trade theory and practice, delayed because the buildings were not ready and equipment not installed. The training schemes are planned to last for two years, and initially cover six trades: automechanics and diesel engines; bricklaying and concrete works; carpentry and joinery; electrical installations and repair; machineshop and fitting; and plumbing and pipefitting. The schemes meet international standards. General education complements trade training. There is a shortage of instructors, but Namibian instructors are being trained. It is hoped that trainees will be able to get industrial and field practice, and the Centre aims to find an internationally recognised institution to undersign its certificates. The current problems are seen as temporary.

**Case study 4**

*A women's literacy project amongst Hmong refugees from Laos living in Thailand*
Adam P. Kirby

The Hmong people are semi-nomadic mountain dwellers. Caught in the crossfire of war in Laos from the late 1960s, tens of thousands left for Thailand in 1979-80. The camp of Ban Vinai now holds about 40,000 Lao and Hmong people. The Hmong hope to return ultimately.

At present 80% of the children attend primary school, there is a small pre-school, and adult education classes include literacy and English.

The paper describes a pilot literacy project for about 90 women, with nutrition and health education components. The project would train women teachers, who could continue with further classes. The project used an existing primer from Laos and a health book from another refugee camp.

After the first course, 53 women received certificates, and more groups started. There were difficulties in keeping up regular attendance, and in training the teachers. There is also a shortage of reading materials in Hmong. The Hmong people need continuing encouragement to overcome these problems. In their present situation of impermanence, progress is difficult.

**Case study 5**

*Education Resource Centre, Dukwe, Botswana*
N. Ntjana

The Centre was started in Gaborone by the Mennonite Church and in 1980 moved to Dukwe, and was handed over for administration to the Lutheran World Federation. It aims to provide refugees with an opportunity to further their secondary studies. In 1981 it adopted a distance-teaching method, with students using correspondence courses, under the supervision of tutors. The Centre has four departments, each with a head and a number of subject tutors who organise tutorials, distribute workbooks and mark assignments. The teaching materials are bought in, mainly from the Botswana Department of Non-formal Education. There is a laboratory, and sporting facilities.

The only evaluation at present is the exams. Unfortunately some students leave the Centre before sitting exams. There are also some who drop out, sometimes for reasons unknown.

**Case Study 6**

*The Namibian Education and Health Centre in the Republic of Zambia and the Namibian Extension Unit, Lusaka, Zambia*

Tony Dodds and John Mbango

SWAPO of Namibia has established health and education centres for Namibian exiles in Zambia and Angola. The Zamibian centre, established in 1974, has a population of over 2,000, mostly under 30. Every adult takes part in productive labour, there are good health services, and cultural activities are organised for leisure. School is compulsory for all school-age children, and all adults are required to participate in some kind of educational activity. Further training is provided by the Vocational Training Centre in Angola and the United Nations Institute for Namibia in Lusaka.

Resources in the Centres were overstretched in trying to provide post-primary and remedial education for young adults, who were not equipped to take up opportunities for training or education elsewhere. SWAPO, The Commonwealth Secretariat and the International Extension College drew up plans in 1979 for a distance-teaching programme which would address these problems. In 1981 this came into being in Lusaka and was called the Namibian Extension Unit. The first courses in English and maths will be joined by basic social and vocational courses and further courses in school subjects. With an initial intake of 2,000 students, numbers are expected to grow rapidly over the next few years.

**Case study 7**

*Commissionerate of Afghan Refugees Education Cell, North West Frontier Province*

Muhammad Mohsin, Additional Commissioner (Education) Afghan Refugees, NWFP, Peshawar

Since 1979 about 3 million Afghans have taken refuge in Pakistan, about three quarters of them in North West Frontier Province (NWFP). Initially they lived in 280 tented villages, but now many have built simple houses.

Since 1981 there has been a special education cell in the Commissionerate for refugees. The Additional Commissioner works with the UNHCR and the NWFP and national Pakistan government to provide education facilities for the maximum number of Afghan children. By February 1985 there were 508 schools, 446 of them at primary level. At first schools were in tents, but since 1982 a building programme has started to replace them.

The education cell has also arranged admission to universities and colleges in Pakistan and elsewhere for over 750 students. Three vocational training centres have been established, and two primary schools have special crafts training programmes. The cell also has a publication wing, which produces textbooks in Pashtu and Persian.

A further programme concerns in-service training of Afghan teachers, as most were untrained. By 1984 over 1,500 had been trained. Experienced Pakistani teacher-trainers run the courses. Teachers Guide Books are being prepared to support the training.

Financial aid has also been given to 100 Islamic schools run by the refugees, to help them get books and teaching materials.

Finally, sporting activities are encouraged and supported.

**Case study 8**

*Thailand: Education for Indo-Chinese refugees*

Supote Prasertsi

Since the 1940s the three Indo-Chinese counties, Kampuchea, Laos and Vietnam, have produced waves of refugees. Since 1975 millions have fled into Thailand, mainly in 1975 and 1979. These were the first groups to receive assistance from UNHCR.

Education programmes have been designed to meet the three durable solutions of voluntary repatriation, local resettlement and third country resettlement.

Initially, classes were organised by the refugees themselves. In 1977 the Thai government introduced a programme including primary education, adult literacy and vocational training. After 1979, and the new influx of Kampucheans, the new refugees organised a large-scale systematic programme including school and adult education. It produced its own textbooks. Over half the refugee population, including many poor peasants, attended classes. A similarly

successful programme was started in Lao camps in 1981. The success is largely due to the fact that the programmes are started and managed by the refugees themselves.

Problems include shortage of space, and of qualified teachers or teacher-trainers. It is difficult to get girls and women involved in education in hilltribe camps. There is a lack of secondary education facilities, and a need to improve the quality of primary schooling, in particular with a greater supply of more relevant textbooks.

**Case study 9**

*Central American refugees in Mexico*
Marie Moore

A mass migration of refugees to Mexico from El Salvador in 1978 was followed in 1980 by a wave of Guatemalans. While many accept that Central American refugees to Mexico are fleeing oppression at home, much public opinion sees them as merely job seekers, while others see them as communist-inspired infiltrators. Despite these mixed attitudes, Mexico retains its traditional policy of welcoming refugees. At present, all aid, including that from UNHCR, is channelled through a Mexican organisation, COMAR.

The complexity of the situation has led to a variety of educational responses. In the Tapachula-Socomiso area, over 20,000 Salvadoreans and Guatemalans are integrated into the community. Their children attend Mexican schools, and there are literacy and vocational classes, linked with income-generating activities. In the San Cristobal area of Chiapas, Guatemalans have now largely been resettled, but initially the church organised support and a wide range of educational activities. In Campeche, Guatemalans are more permanently settled, with land to work, and schools and adult education classes are operating. In schools, refugee teachers receive orientation from Mexicans. For adult education, church workers help the refugees to pass on skills to each other.

Mexico City holds about 40,000 refugees, mostly there illegally. They are scattered, often unemployed or partly employed. They find it difficult to adapt to city life, and fear losing their national identities. Most work done with these refugees is on the margin of legality. As a result UNHCR can do very little for them. A refugee house in Mexico caters for up to 25 at a time, providing support and orientation, and acting as a centre for educational and social activities for refugees. It is hoped to provide better orientation and to decrease dependency in the future.

**Case study 10**

*Attempts to overcome the 'Anti-school Complex' among Afghan refugees in Pakistan*
Engineer Mohammad Yusuf Ayubi

By 1979, the conservative Afghan people had begun to accept school education as necessary and valuable. Then after the communist take-over schools became propaganda centres, and some of the first targets of the resistance. Virtually all schools in Afghanistan are now closed. The general population, including the refugees, has again turned against schools.

UNHCR has attempted to provide schools for the children of three million refugees in Pakistan. In theory there is a school up to sixth grade in every village up to 10,000 population. In practice, schools have limited success, partly due to the anti-school attitude of the parents. A voluntary Afghan organisation, with the help of Inter-Aid Committee, has since 1982 set up ten primary schools in Baluchistan. In early stages, schools were left in the hands of refugee leaders and mosque teachers. After one year, the group asked the schools to introduce textbooks. The teachers asked for help in producing these, and then asked for some trained teachers to be appointed to the schools. Thus trust was built up amongst traditionally minded parents and teachers, and it is now possible to employ trained teachers in the schools, without fear of parents withdrawing their children.

**Case study 11**

*Education for liberation*
M. Tikly

The Department of Education of the African National Congress of South Africa provides educational opportunities for exiles. The Solomon Mahlangu Freedom College (Somafco) is an educational complex at Mazimbu in Tanzania. It includes a secondary school with 270 students, who will ultimately be able to study up to A level, a primary school with over 250 children, and a

nursery school and day care centre with over 100 children. For adults there are basic literacy classes, intermediate (primary) level classes, advanced (secondary) level classes and art, cultural and recreational activities. Over 100 adults are enrolled. Staffing and learning resources are problems for the adult classes. A number of production projects complement the educational sector.

Some pre-vocational training is to be provided at Somafco, and a separate Vocational Training Centre is under construction at Dakawa, Tanzania.

The Commonwealth Secretariat, with the help of the Government of Tanzania, has recently established a distance education unit for South African exiles and it is expected that Mazimbu and Dakawa will provide about 1,000 candidates, with the rapid growth of ANC's exile community. The distance learning will complement the adult education programme.

The Department of Education also places students in university, technical and vocational courses around the world: about 650 currently hold awards and 250 are awaiting placement.

The ANC commitment to education is expressed in the Freedom Charter, which declares that 'the doors of learning and culture shall be opened to all'.

**Case study 12**

*Institute of In-Service Teacher Training (IITT): current situation and future prospects*
Bashir F. Kahiye – Director, Mohammed M. Farah – Deputy Director, Knud Mortensen – Consultant

IITT started in 1981, and recruits and trains young refugees to teach refugee children in primary schools. It is also increasingly concerned with other types of education and training for refugees.

Refugees began to arrive in Somalia from Ethiopia in 1977 and in 1981 there were an estimated 700,000. More began arriving in 1984. They live in 35 camps. There is a high proportion of children.

IITT is part of the Somali Ministry of Education and operates under a tripartite agreement, with the National Refugee Commission having a co-ordinating, monitoring and evaluation role and the UNHCR as the funding agency. The Ministry of Education seconds staff to it. IITT has a head office in Mogadishu, but its organisation is highly decentralised, with a network of teacher training supervisors based in the camp schools.

Teachers initially receive in-service training for two years; since 1984 those already trained have been eligible for an upgrading course using distance methods. Over the first four years over 2,000 young refugees were recruited, with 900 on the in-service training programme in 1984/5. This has had a drop-out rate of under 10%.

Both the two-year in-service programme and the three-year upgrading programme for teachers use a combination of distance methods, self-study, and face-to-face sessions, adapted originally from techniques applied by the UNRWA/Unesco education system for Palestinian refugees. They use an orientation course, printed assignments for self-study, individual supervision in the camps, weekly seminars and residential vacation courses. The upgrading course also has correspondence tuition. The supervisory system is of key importance, and IITT plans further training of the supervisors. The national curriculum is used along with the textbooks, and teaching methods tend to be traditional. This is successful, but attempts are also being made by IITT, together with the Ministry of Education Curriculum Development Centre, to enrich the curriculum, relating it more closely to pupils' environment.

About 30% of eligible children are enrolled at school, mostly in lower-primary grades, and with only a quarter girls. The schools themselves may be tents, stick houses, or permanent buildings. They have little or no furniture, and often operate in two shifts.

With a new policy for refugee settlement, there is more emphasis on integrated community development, and related education at all levels. IITT envisages the expansion and improvement of primary school facilities, the need for post-primary schooling and for adult education.

**Case study 13**

*The education needs of refugees: the case of Eritrean refugees in the Sudan*
Osman Saleh

There are about 450,000 Eritreans in the Sudan, about 45% of the total refugee population. Most are women and children. Many have settled in urban areas, usually those of urban background,

In schools established for Palestinians, the curricula of the five host countries have been adopted. Educational development centres have helped strengthen the teaching through enrichments to the curriculum. There are high rates of school attendance and competition at both elementary and the subsequent preparatory level. Aspirations for university training are complemented by an interest in vocational skills. A shortage of school buildings means that most schools are run on a double shift system. Schools are brick-stone, prefabricated or rented, and classrooms are overcrowded. The environment makes it difficult to use the methods of self-directed discovery learning advocated by the UNRWA/Unesco department of education. The quality of teaching is however usually high, with uniform traditional lesson plans used everywhere. This probably results from UNRWA/Unesco's strong centralised supervisory system.

Since 1964 teachers have been trained by the UNRWA/Unesco Institute of Education. Underqualified or unqualified teachers are trained on-the-job, using a combination of distance-teaching and face-to-face methods. After a decade of emergency training the emphasis has shifted to follow-up training for qualified staff. Key personnel are the supervisors, who support the teachers in the field.

The UNRWA/Unesco experience could be useful in offering guidance on techniques and logistics in other refugee situations. The qualitative educational decisions should always, however, remain the concern of national or local authorities.

# List of participants

| | |
|---|---|
| Mr David Anderson | IEC Trustee |
| Mr I V Ankama | SWAPO, Angola |
| Mr Eltayeb Ateya | University of Khartoum, Sudan |
| Mr Engineer Ayubi | Pakistan |
| Mr John Bevan | World University Service, UK |
| Mr Martin Byram | Sudan Extension Unit, Sudan |
| Ms Susy Carstairs | World University Service, UK |
| Mr Gilberto Chulim | Ministry of Education, Belize |
| Dr John Daniel | Ephesus House, Swaziland |
| Mr Tony Dodds | International Extension College |
| Mr Terence Dormer | Commonwealth Secretariat |
| Dr H Feridun | UNRWA, Austria |
| Ms Felicia Forrest | Ephesus House, Swaziland |
| Mr Tedros Hagos | Relief Society of Tigray, UK |
| Mr Nigel Hartley | International World University Service |
| Ms Sarah Hayward | World University Service, UK |
| Mr Craig Howard | Ford Foundation, Nairobi |
| Dr Solomon Inquai | International Extension College |
| Ms Janet Jenkins | International Extension College |
| Mr Bashir Kahiye | Institute for In-service Teacher Training, Somalia |
| Mr Mats Karlsson | Swedish International Development Authority |
| Mr Adam Kirby | UK |
| Mr Kees Maxey | Africa Educational Trust |
| Dr Neil MacDonald | World University Service, UK |
| Ms Monica McIlvaney | Ireland |
| Mr Muhammed Mohsin | Commissioner of Refugees Office, Pakistan |
| Mr Raul Molina | International World University Service |
| Mr S Mongella | Ministry of Home Affairs, Tanzania |
| Ms Marie Moore | Mexico |
| Mr Knud Mortensen | Danish Adviser to IITT |
| Mr Nico Ntjana | Education Resource Centre, Dukwe, Botswana |
| Dr Enrique Oteiza | UNRISD, Geneva |
| Ms Margot Perrin | British Refugee Council |
| Mr Suphote Prasertsi | Thailand |
| Ms Emilia Roffe | UNHCR, Geneva |
| Ms Osman Saleh | Eritrean Relief Association, Sudan |
| Mr Mohammed Sherif | Ministry of Education, Sudan |
| Ms Maureen Stirling | International Extension College |
| Mr Mohamed Tikly | ANC (South Africa), Tanzania |
| Dr Tina Wallace | World University Service, UK |
| Mr Klavs Wulff | Denmark |
| Mr Alex Yeats | Christian Aid, UK |
| Lord Michael Young | International Extension College |

# Workshop Programme

**Friday 29 March 1985**

15.30 Arrival, welcome and tea
16.30 Refugee education worldwide – an introduction to the workshop
18.00 Reception at the Elmhirst Centre
20.00 *Panel discussion* – Primary education and teacher training

**Saturday 30 March**

08.00 Breakfast
08.30 *Panel discussion* – Primary education and teacher training
10.30 Coffee
11.00 *Panel discussion* – Secondary and higher education and vocational training
13.00 Lunch
14.30 *Panel discussion* – Adult and non-formal education
16.30 Tea
17.00 *Study groups* on:
(a) Education for liberation and return
Education and integration: the curriculum
(b) Education for development, self-sufficiency and employment
(c) Priorities in resource allocation
19.00 Dinner
20.00 Reports from study groups and plenary discussion

**Sunday 31 March**

08.00 Breakfast
10.00 Coffee
10.30 Plenary session: New initiatives for international assistance
13.00 Lunch
14.30 Group sessions: Seminar conclusions and proposals on future international assistance to refugee education
16.30 Tea
17.00 Concluding plenary: Reports from groups, plenary discussion and resolutions
19.00 Dinner

**Monday 1 April**

08.00 Breakfast
09.00 Depart

The **International Extension College** exists to provide information and advice on distance teaching: a technique of education combining the use of printed material, broadcasts and face-to-face tuition. IEC is particularly interested in the use of distance teaching for non-formal and rural education. It is a nonprofit organisation registered as a charity under English law, and has links with the National Extension College and the Department of International and Comparative Education of the University of London Institute of Education.

IEC works with governments and universities in third world countries to provide information, consultancy and training for distance-teaching projects. At the request of the governments concerned, it has started colleges in Mauritius, Botswana and Lesotho, and worked with the University of Lagos, Nigeria, in establishing a Correspondence and Open Studies Unit.

During the last six years IEC has paid special attention to the use of distance-teaching techniques to expand educational provision for refugees. It has advised various agencies working with refugees on the development of distance-teaching programmes, has provided training and other forms of support to staff employed in such programmes and has begun to develop a specialised information exchange service for individuals and agencies concerned with the education of refugees. It has also begun to produce a series of reports and case studies on refugee education, which are available from IEC in Cambridge.

**World University Service (UK)** is an educational charity committed to work for development and educational rights, in the UK and internationally, by pressing for open access to and academic freedom within educational systems. WUS (UK) is one of the national committees of International WUS and is thus linked to a world-wide organisation concerned with social justice and education.

Through its scholarship programmes for refugees WUS (UK) has supported hundreds of people who have suffered persecution. WUS is increasingly concerned to highlight, through campaigns, seminars and publications, the political and social importance of education in the development context, and to make people aware of the close links that exist between education and political systems.

Membership of WUS (UK) is £5 (ordinary rate) and £3 (student rate).